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ART. I.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI.

IN the July number of the Review, I find an Article entitled:—"Protection of the Low Lands of the Mississippi; by Major Barnard, Engineer Corps." The article consists principally of some extracts from M. Dubuat's "*Principes d'Hydrauliques*," in relation to the straightening of rivers, and the changes that may be made in their courses as in their beds," accompanied by about two pages and a half of notes, by Major Barnard himself, professedly based upon the authority of the previous extracts, together with his own knowledge of the Mississippi River. The subject being a very important one, involving the prosperity of the agricultural interest of a large portion of Louisiana, which has already suffered, and which, judging from present appearances, will still continue to suffer immense loss. From the erroneous views so generally entertained with respect to it, I may be excused for offering a few remarks in regard to Major Barnard's Notes, and the conclusions at which he arrives.

On a careful examination of the Notes, and a comparison of them with the extracts, I find that they do not accord. The extracts from M. Dubuat's work lay down cut-offs as a remedy for overflows, and give the reasons why they are so, namely, that by shortening the course of a river, they increase the relative fall, diminish the resistance, aid the discharge, and thereby lower the surface of its water. But on looking over Major Barnard's Notes, I find, to my surprise, that "in accordance with these principles" he has come to the conclusion that "no relief to the lower river can be obtained by means of cut-offs." I am the more surprised at the conclusion, taken in connection with the extracts, because in introducing them he says: "His remarks in relation

to redressments (cut-offs) are, perhaps, as applicable to the Mississippi as to any river."

The first enquiry that would naturally suggest itself to the mind, on comparing the notes with the extracts, is, how Major Barnard, from extracts recommending cut-offs, could draw the conclusion that "no relief to the lower river can be obtained by means of cut-offs." There is not a paragraph, nor a sentence in the extracts from M. Dubuat, that carries with it an argument against cut-offs. On the contrary, they are in favor of them properly made and not carried to excess. M. Dubuat thinks they ought not to be used where, in shortening the course of a river the fall would be increased too much, and the velocity made to interfere materially with the navigation, or be rendered dangerous to the banks. In the case of the Mississippi there is no such danger to be apprehended from cut-offs. The fall in the Mississippi from the commencement of the lower valley to the Gulf is so slight and so gradual, that there is no possibility of any cut-off increasing the velocity so as to prevent or impede navigation. Neither can the velocity of the current be so increased by straightening the channel as to render it dangerous to the banks. The *crevasses* in the Mississippi are not caused by the increased velocity of its water, but by the checks placed upon it, by the interposition of bends, &c., which retarding the velocity and impeding the discharge of the water cause its surface to rise, and thereby increase the pressure against the levees; they never occur in a straight river of a normal breadth and under proper levee regulations. On the other hand, were the channel made straight by the use of cut-offs, the increase of velocity, though it could not be made so great as to impede navigation, would by the increased rapidity of discharge, and by the deepening of the bed, lower the surface of the water and thereby relieve the levees more or less from the pressure of the water, which, in the present condition of the river, breaks through them in high water, while the very straightening of the channel would lower the surface of the river, and consequently reduce the pressure against the levees, and thereby remove any danger of *crevasses*.

Major Barnard seems to rely, for his strange conclusions, on the opinion expressed by M. Dubuat, that cut-offs, when necessary, should be commenced in the lower part of a river, and continued thence upwards, but by commencing in the upper part, the increased velocity produced by them might flood the lower river, and also, upon his own opinion as to the character of the channel of the Mississippi. Let me examine these two opinions for a moment: It is admitted by M. Dubuat, and also by Major Barnard, that a cut-off relieves the river above a bend, and lowers the surface of the river; but both contend, that the increased velocity tends to flood the river below. Very little reflection will show that this opinion is not correct; as, indeed, has long since been clearly established by experience. A bend in a river, by diminishing the relative fall, and by opposing greater resistance to the discharge of the water, causes it to accumulate in the reach above, until it acquires such a head as to force its way through. A cut-off being made, the fall is diminished, the resistance diminished, and of course, the velocity proportionably increased. The consequences are, the bed of the river is deepened, and the reach above being relieved by a free discharge, the

water is no longer forced to rise in order to discharge itself. The surface therefore, being lowered, no more water passes through the cut-off than was previously forced through the bend by the rise in the water above. As to the increase of velocity, that in a river with as slight a fall as the lower Mississippi, cannot become too great; indeed, can never become greater than is necessary to keep its channel clear. In fact, the benefit from the cut-off consists as much in the increased velocity as in the free and unimpeded discharge of the water, for both are inseparably connected together. But whatever increase there may be in the velocity, arising from a cut-off, it cannot increase the tendency to overflow in the next bend below, as that depends, not upon the velocity, but upon the perpendicular height of the water kept back by the bend. When the water in the reach above a bend rises to a certain height, it commences discharging through the bend the same quantity it would discharge through a straight channel, with a reduced surface; and whether it comes down a little more slowly or a little more rapidly, it will commence relieving itself at that point only, and not before. In this respect a bend may be compared to a dam. Water cannot pass over a dam until it reaches a certain height; neither can it pass through a bend. As soon as it reaches that height, it commences discharging itself over a dam; so it does through a bend. And whether it comes down more rapidly or more slowly from above, provided the quantity remains the same, cannot affect the height of surface in the river below the dam; neither can it, for the same reason, when it passes through the bend. The tendency of both is to impede the discharge of water. The fear from increased velocity is therefore an idle one; for it is not only actually serviceable in deepening the new channel, relieving the reach above, and also deepening the reach below, thus establishing uniformity in the bed above and below, or in the inclination of the surface of the water; but it cannot possibly do any injury.

When it is considered that the river, itself, must be the great agent in all improvements made in its channel, and that all its alterations are from above downwards in the direction of its current, can any one doubt as to the propriety of the mode which nature adopts to effect her objects? When she begins her operations from above and works downwards, does man show his wisdom by arguing that she ought to begin below and work up? Were an extended system of improvements projected for the Mississippi, embracing the bar at the mouth, as well as the whole channel of the lower river, it might be well to prepare the mouth first, that the whole united force of the river, after all the outlets on either side of the pass were closed, and the channel constructed to the normal breadth might be brought to bear upon the bar, so as to deepen it, if not remove it altogether. But, in the mere operation of straightening the course of the river by cut-offs, it would be more advisable to begin from above, as by that means, the power through whose aid we expect to effect any improvement in the bend below is rendered more efficient.

The second opinion, upon which Major Barnard seems to ground his opposition to cut-offs in the Mississippi, is the peculiar character of the channel. He states that while there are several bends above the junction of the Red River, which might be cut through with benefit to that

part of the river, below that point the course of the river, being for the most part moderately winding, has only a few bends that can be cut through; and, therefore, that the cutting of those above, though it might relieve that part of the river, would inundate the lower part. How this necessarily follows I am at a loss to conceive. If the lower part of the river be only moderately winding, it certainly would not oppose such resistance to the discharge of the water coming from above, as would authorize Major Barnard, even were I disposed to admit his premises, to argue overflow as a necessary consequence. But though a part of the lower channel being only moderately winding, may have no bend that requires to be cut, or that could be cut so as to improve the course of the river, is that a reason why that part, where the free discharge of the water, is obstructed by bends, should not be relieved? A straight channel of a normal width, with uniform banks, and a uniform depth, discharging its waters without obstruction and with a regular velocity, would certainly be the most perfect, that a river flowing through a country inclining almost imperceptibly towards the sea, could have. But, though it may not be possible to bring the channel of the Mississippi to this degree of perfection, it does not follow that every attempt to approximate to it should be abandoned, such a conclusion is consistent neither with reason, experience, nor common sense. If the improvement of the Mississippi cannot be carried as far as might be wished, let it be carried as far as it is practicable.

With respect to levees; there is no principle with regard to wide or narrow leveeing laid down in hydrotechnics, because an artificial river is always formed of two different profiles of a normal breadth—one for a low and the other for a high stage of the river—whereby the velocity of the current is regulated in such a manner as to prevent abrasion of the banks as well as the deposit of the heavy material which the river brings down. When the quantity of water which the river discharges, at high water mark, is ascertained we are able to determine the normal breadth of the river at its highest stage, together with the height of the levees and their distance from one another. There cannot be, in my opinion, a more mistaken idea than that one rule of distance is applicable to rivers of every degree of magnitude. The leveeing of the Po, or the Loire cannot, therefore, be taken as a standard by which to determine the location of the levees along the Mississippi, and, in this particular, the latter may be considered a river *sui generis*.

Thus far, I have thought it necessary to notice the views of Major Barnard. Were they put forward by any person not expected to be acquainted with the principles which Hydrotechnics teach, and which professional experience enables the mind to understand and appreciate, they might be looked upon without surprise, and passed by in silence; but, coming from a gentleman, invested with all the dignity of professional pretension, they cannot but be looked upon, to say the least, as singular, and the more singular because they are professedly based upon the authority of extracts, which, in reality, were intended to refute the very conclusion at which they arrive. But, to render the article still more singular, Major Barnard, in his closing remarks, admits that he has no plan for the improvement of the Mississippi, and that he is utterly ignorant of any data upon which one could be based. The conclusions

to which Major Barnard has come, taken altogether, reminds me of the decision to which the council of Castile, Spain once came with regard to a similar question. They decided after solemn deliberation: That, if it had pleased God to make the river straight, he would not have wanted human assistance to enable him to make it so. But as he has not done it, it is plain he did not think it proper that it should be done. To attempt it, therefore, would be to violate the decrees of his providence and to mend the imperfections which he designedly left in his work. Such a decision may be in accordance with Major Barnard's views, but I doubt very much if it will meet those of the people of Louisiana.

MOBILE, August, 1850.

ART. II.—SPANISH PARTIES IN THE WEST.*

THIS party in Kentucky—which took its name not from the adoption of Spanish views and interests by any party in Kentucky, for such was never the fact, but from the employment of Spanish officers to seduce the people of Kentucky from the Union—took another form in 1795, which may be distinguished as its second shape or phase.

At this time, the navigation of the Mississippi was still an unsettled question between the governments of the United States and Spain. Even the boundary of the United States stipulated by the Treaty of Paris in 1783, was resisted by the latter. She claimed, and actually exercised, jurisdiction on the Mississippi up to Vicksburg—then called the Walnut Hills; maintained forts at the latter point and at Natchez. Our relations with Spain, fluctuated with all the changes of relation between her and other European powers, and particularly France.

In June, 1795, Thomas Pickney was sent to Madrid, to bring these negotiations, so long pending, to a close. In the mean time, possibly under instructions from Spain, issued before the arrival of Pinckney, Carondelet, governor of Louisiana, despatched Thomas Power from New Orleans to Louisville, in Kentucky, with a letter addressed to Benjamin Sebastian, then a judge of the Court of Appeals of that State. In this communication, which is spread on the legislative records of Kentucky, he declares "that the confidence reposed in you by my predecessor, Brigadier General Miro, and your *former* correspondence, have induced me to make a communication to you, highly interesting to the country in which you live, and to Louisiana." He then mentions "that the king of Spain was willing to open the navigation of the Mississippi to the western country, and desirous to establish certain regulations reciprocally beneficial to the commerce of both countries." To effect these objects, Judge Sebastian was, the governor says, "to procure agents to be chosen and fully empowered by the people of your country, to negotiate with Colonel Gayoso, (afterwards governor of Natchez,) on the subject, at New Madrid

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whom I shall send there in October next, properly authorized for the purpose, with directions to continue at the place or its vicinity, until the arrival of your agents."

Some time in November, or early in December of this year, (1795,) Judge Innes and William Murray, afterwards a distinguished lawyer of Natchez, were requested by Judge Sebastian to meet him at the house of Col. Nicholas (the father of the present Louisville Chancellor.) The gentlemen went to Col. Nicholas, as they were desired, and there met Judge Sebastian. Some deliberation ensued, which resulted in the unanimous opinion of the gentlemen assembled, that Judge Sebastian should meet Col. Gayoso, to ascertain the real views of the Spanish Government in these overtures. Sebastian accordingly descended the Ohio and met the Spanish Agent at the mouth of that river. In consequence of the severity of the weather, however, the gentlemen agreed to go to New Madrid. Here a commercial agreement was partly effected; but some difference of opinion occurring between the negotiators, they repaired to New-Orleans, to submit the matter to the Governor General at that city. This adjustment was deferred by some pressing business, when, after a few days, the Spanish Governor sent for Sebastian, and informed him that a courier had arrived from Havana, with the intelligence that a treaty had been signed between the United States and Spain, which put an end to the business between them. The Kentucky envoy, after vainly urging the Spanish Government to close the sub-negotiation, in the expectation that the treaty would not be ratified, returned to Kentucky by the Atlantic ports. Thus ended the attempt, in 1795, to form a commercial connection between Kentucky and New Orleans, on the part of the provincial authority of the Governor of Louisiana.

Third form or phase of the Spanish Party in Kentucky.—This private negotiation, though terminated so abruptly by Carondelet, contrary to the urgent representations of Sebastian, was again renewed by the former officer in 1797. This was while the territorial line on the south was marking, between the United States and Spain. It was again attempted through the agency of Messrs. Power and Sebastian, on the respective parts of the Governor of Louisiana and certain Kentucky gentlemen. Thomas Power again arrived at Louisville, Kentucky, in the spring of 1797, as the agent of the Governor of Louisiana, and ostensibly on a mission to General Wilkinson, who then had his head-quarters at Detroit.

Power, immediately on his arrival in Louisville, communicated a letter from Governor Carondelet to Sebastian, desiring him to lay it before Messrs. Innes, Nicholas and Murray. In this letter, the proposal was boldly made "to form a government wholly unconnected with that of the Atlantic States." To aid these perfidious purposes, in the face of a treaty just negotiated between the two governments, and to compensate those who should consign themselves to infamy by assisting a foreign power to dissolve the sacred league of the States—to convert its free republican institutions, into dependencies on the arbitrary and jealous government of Spain, orders for one or even two hundred thousand dollars on the royal treasury of New Orleans; or, "if more convenient, these sums were to be conveyed at the expense of his Catholic

Majesty into the country," (Kentucky) and held at the disposal of those who should degrade themselves into Spanish conspirators. Other details of arms, &c., were entered into on an occasion not worth repeating.

The compensation to Spain for the free use of money and arms, made in this communication, was to be found in extending the northern boundary of Florida, at least to the Yazoo, to which Spain had tenaciously adhered, and which she now desperately and for the last time, endeavored treacherously to retain. It will be remembered that Great Britain had, while Florida passed under her dominion by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, extended West Florida north to the Yazoo River, hence the pretension of Spain to the same boundary, when adjusting the territorial limits between herself and the United States.

After receiving this communication from Power, Sebastian visited Judge Innes at his seat near Frankfort, and laid it before him. The Judge, and I quote from his own communication to a legislative committee, immediately observed that "it was a dangerous project, and ought not to be countenanced, as the western people had now obtained the navigation of the Mississippi, by which all their wishes were gratified.

Sebastian concurred in sentiment, *after*, it must be observed, this explicit declaration of Innes, who seems to have given tone to the whole conversation. Still, as Power desired an answer in writing, Sebastian prevailed on Innes to see Col. Nicholas, saying, "whatever they did he would concur in." A few days afterwards, Nicholas was seen by Innes at Lexington, Kentucky, who agreed, in opinion, with the Judge. The Colonel, accordingly, wrote an answer to Power's communication, (dated September 4, 1797—Rep. Journal, 1806,) unequivocally declaring that they "would not be concerned in any attempt to sever the Western country from the United States; that whatever part they might, at any time, be induced to take in the politics of their country, that her welfare would be their only inducement; that they would never receive any pecuniary or other reward for any personal exertions made by them to promote that welfare." The reply containing these sentiments, was forwarded to Sebastian, and by him communicated to Power. Thus terminated this pertinacious and treacherous intrigue on the part of Spain, to dissever these States. It is due to this subject and its actors, to state how these secrets were disclosed. In the session of 1806, Judge Innes was summoned before a committee of the House of Representatives of Kentucky, which had been instituted to inquire into the conduct of Judge Sebastian. Before this committee, Judge Innes disclosed the whole tissue of the Spanish intrigues, which have been related. Upon this frank and honorable disclosure, preserved in the legislative records of Kentucky, and subsequently communicated by order of the legislature, to the Congress of the United States, this relation has been based. There the whole matter slept the sleep of death, from which, Judge Rowan has often told the writer, he could not awaken it. A committee was appointed, but never made a report; high influence, it was said, suffocated the whole matter. We will now advert to the character of the persons involved in this memorable passage of western history. These are all marshalled for judgment and execution by the author of this truculent essay. The first character in order is *John Brown*, who is mercilessly arraigned on the sole testimony of a libellous

newspaper, which was published in high party times, some forty years ago. How wanton—how unjust—how contrary to the tribute of the highest public testimonials of his adopted State, and the confidence of Washington, have already been shown. It only remains to add, that the bitterest enemies of John Brown, and they were political ones only, never connected him in the slightest degree with the communications of Power and Sebastian. They were, apparently, as unknown to him, as they were to the whole commonwealth, before the voluntary disclosures of Judge Innes. These may be compared to a thunderbolt in a summer sky.

Judge Innes.—This gentleman has already occupied no little attention, in this sober review of his conduct: the injustice and misrepresentation of this essay, must be undeniable. They are rather the ravings which could alone be inspired by the passions of party, in the bitterest moods of its existence. They are echoes or quotations, from the polluted columns of the "Western World"—a paper bitterly edited by a Scotch slanderer of John Adams, the notorious John Wood. Who ought to blush at the charge that Innes "persisted in his treasonable conspiracies with every foreign emissary, who intrigued for the dissolution of the Union, regardless alike of the duties of a good citizen, and the high obligations of his official duty?" Certainly, no friend to Judge Innes can be disturbed by such frantic misrepresentations of his course. But first, let us listen to the explanations of his conduct, given by the Judge himself, in his examination before the legislative committee:—"The reasons," said Innes, "why himself and Col. Nicholas did not communicate the subject to the Executive of the United States, were these:—1st. It was known that neither of us approved of Mr. Adams' administration, and we believed he kept a watchful eye over our actions; that the communication must depend upon his opinion of our veracity; and it would have the appearance of courting his favor; 2d. that we both had reason and did believe, that the then administration were disposed, upon the slightest pretexts, to send an army to this State, which we considered would be a grievance upon the people, and therefore, declined making any communication on the subject, as we apprehended no danger from the Spanish Government."—*Journal House of Reps., 1806-7*). These reasons, I am willing to admit, will bear no examination; and yet, I have frequently thought what Col. Nicholas would have said on this matter, had he then been alive. How indignantly would he have scorned the base part of a public informer!—a States' evidence!—when all danger to the country had been averted. He would not have stooped to betray Judge Sebastian, to the loss of his character and office, by wanton delation; nor, would he have spared the apparent apathy, if not criminal disregard of the navigation of the Mississippi, which had been evinced by the administration of the old Congress.

Judge Innes must have felt the force of these considerations, though he did not avow them; and, but for his high and conscientious sense of duty, when summoned before the legislative committee, the public might never have been acquainted with these defeated intrigues of Spain. The memory of Innes and Nicholas is free from all suspicion of being tainted with foreign bribery, however party feeling, in times of high party existence may have led them to conceal from their own government, these

tamperings of a foreign one. Apprehensions of political consequences to Kentucky, should not for a moment have been allowed to interfere with the duty of both, as citizens, and one as a judicial officer of the United States. The charge of foreign bribery, though brought home to Judge Sebastian, never was attached to his associates in the slightest degree. All participation in this odious business had been rejected, too tamely, I admit, by them; yet, it fastened an obloquy upon Judge Innes, which, in this instance, he did not fully deserve, and which distressed him through the remainder of his life, if it did not shorten his days. The whole tenor of the conduct of Messrs. Innes and Nicholas cannot justify the slightest suspicion of their fidelity to the Union of the American States, or indifference to their liberties. Their character for faithful, devoted friends to the freedom and happiness of their country, had ever stood high and unimpaired in the confidence of their fellow citizens. It is likewise due to the virtues of Judge Innes to declare, that in all the relations of private life, no man was dearer or more idolized, by the witnesses of his mild, upright and benevolent character. His public career in Kentucky, amidst its earliest difficulties, had always been one of high trust and confidence, in all the changes of government; he had early been appointed judge of the Virginia district court, and then attorney general, and finally, judge of the United States district court of Kentucky. In all these responsible capacities the conduct of Judge Innes was without reproach, and raised him most deservedly high in the public esteem. He repeatedly received the thanks of General Washington, for his services in the Board of War, which was organized for the Western country in 1792.

Col. Nicholas.—This gentleman has left behind him the reputation of an exalted and patriotic, as well as a most distinguished lawyer. In the Convention of Virginia, assembled to decide upon the ratification of the present Constitution of the United States, he took a prominent and influential part, alongside of such illustrious worthies as Wythe, Madison, and Gov. Randolph. He bears the reputation of being the author of the first constitution of Kentucky. To a man of such reputation, and such associations, what could have been more repugnant than a dependence on Spain? or more shocking to all the dearest feelings of his heart, than to become a Spanish conspirator? These men might all have duped the Spanish agents into any disbursements from the King's chest at New Orleans, much more effectually than Sebastian; but their sense of honor must properly disdained it. How cruel and unjust then, now to stigmatize their memory with slanders long ago buried by the public indignation of Kentucky, in silence and contempt?

Judge Sebastian.—For this person I have no apology to make; for his conduct in 1795 and 1797, at once degraded his distinguished abilities—his commanding address—his more courteous and dignified manners—by stooping from high office to become a pensioned agent of a foreign government. He was convicted before a legislative committee of having received a pension of \$2000 per annum from Spain; and that his conduct in doing so “was subversive of every duty he owed to the constituted authorities of our country, and highly derogatory to Kentucky.” This report was unanimously agreed to by the House, and the Judge was suffered to resign, in sympathy for an ancient public servant. The charge of public bribery must be confined to Judge Sebastian; to

whom the testimony, under the excitement of most embittered party, *exclusively* applied. Not a public statesman in the West, with this exception, and bearing in full mind the calumnies against Gen. Wilkinson, can, with the slightest grounds of justice, be charged with this high public crime. As well attempt to assail the character of Col. Thomas Marshall, the father of the Chief Justice, because he received the visits of Doctor or Col. Connolly, who called upon him for the purpose of ascertaining the temper of Kentucky to accept British assistance. Yet, he disdained and repelled such offers, as truly as Judge Innes and Col. Nicholas had, the offers of Spain in 1795 and 1797. As well assail Major Crittenden, the father of the present noble Governor of Kentucky, because he saved Connolly from being mobbed in Lexington, Kentucky, and permitted him to return to Canada with whole bones. No schemes of disunion never had existence on the soil of Kentucky, but when abandoned by her own government, as she was under the Old Congress.

Judge Muter.—In regard to this honorable and amiable Judge, whom I well knew, I only wish I could find access to the memoir of Judge Todd, furnished for Wheaton or Peter's reports, by his gallant son, Col. Charles S. Todd, the late minister of the United States, to St. Petersburg, for the detail of his vindication. But deprived of these, I am but at little loss to repel this attack upon the fair fame of the Chief Justice of Kentucky. So far from having any connection with the Spanish conspiracy of Carondelet, Power and Sebastian, the wantonness of party slander never hinted such an accusation, beyond the polluted columns of the "Western World." And will it be believed that an old man, who had gallantly fought his way through the whole revolutionary war, Scotsman as he was, on the side of American liberty, is taunted with monarchical attachments? Yet the gallant and generous hearted old Judge, who left himself a beggar by resigning his chief justiceship, under the pressure of years, disappointed in the pension given to him on the resignation by the indignant repeal of the law under which it was granted, found an asylum in the family of Judge Thomas Todd. There he lived the remnant of his days a pensioner upon his more youthful and fortunate friend. I used to visit him in the log cabin which he inhabited in the Judge's yard, serenely whiling away his time with his books and his violin. And now, when deprived of all the fruits of a long public life, devoted to Virginia and Kentucky, in the field and on the bench, he died leaving Judge Todd his residuary legatee. Under this will, Judge Todd recovered a large and handsome sum of money, for this *monarchist's* military services to the commonwealth of Virginia. "Oh shame where is thy blush!"

General Wilkinson.—In June, 1787, James Wilkinson, afterwards the famous general of that name, descended from Kentucky to New Orleans with a small cargo of tobacco, determined, as he tells us in his own memoirs, (vol. 2, pp. 112, 116), to try his enterprise and address at the seat of the Spanish government of Louisiana. When the boat arrived through the long intervening wilderness, at New Orleans, the representations of a friend of Wilkinson's to Gov. Miro, prevented its confiscation. Mr. Patterson, the friend of Wilkinson, was, moreover, permitted to dispose of the cargo free of duty. (American State Papers, p. 704).

In addition to this favor extended from the politic fears of the Spaniards, Wilkinson obtained a contract to furnish a considerable supply of tobacco for the Mexican market annually. This tobacco was to be paid for at ten dollars per cwt., or as Clark says, \$9,50 delivered in the King's stores at New Orleans; when it was selling in Kentucky for \$2 per cwt.

This contract, which Wilkinson had at the time the most perfect right to make, as much so as any private citizen has at this day, with a foreign government at peace with the United States, became the source of many malignant insinuations against him, when, as afterwards, he became an officer in the army of the United States. Payments under this contract for tobacco delivered at New Orleans, which were remitted to, and received by Wilkinson in Kentucky, although immediately paid away to the farmers of that State, were all trumpeted abroad as Spanish bribes. I will repeat what sixteen years ago I said on this subject. "It is due to the memory of General Wilkinson, to his distinguished services and persecutions, to declare that this part (meaning the tobacco contract,) of the subject was approached by the author, with strong prepossessions against his purity. But on sifting the mass of testimony procured by one military tribunal, and four committees of Congress, added to that presented to a second court; and finding the General acquitted by both courts, and their sentences approved (reluctantly approved in the last instance,) by two Presidents of the United States, the author has been forced into the conclusion that this military officer has been wronged in the suspicions and denunciations so long and bitterly indulged against his honesty. "General Wilkinson did certainly show no reserve in disclosing to his own government these connexions with the Spanish officers at New Orleans; nor any backwardness in developing the circumstances, or in soliciting inquiry from General Washington, or the elder Adams. "But one conclusive consideration in the mind of the writer, which confirms the honor and fidelity of Wilkinson, is, that, in his long and various public services, no one solitary instance can be justly alleged, in which he disregarded or violated the strictest, and most zealous discharge of his duty." How easy would it have been for Wilkinson, when stationed on the Sabine river and informed by Swartwout that Burr was descending to New Orleans, to have avoided patching up matters with the Spaniards on that frontier, or to have precipitated hostilities, never difficult, between enemies in the field? A negative course would have left New Orleans open to the plunder of Burr; active hostilities with the Spaniards would have been still more effectual. But what was his course? it was to agree with the Spaniards upon the Sabine as a temporary line between the United States and Spain, until farther negotiations of the two governments; and to hurry down to the defence of New Orleans, how effectually we all know. Yet this eminent officer seems to have been, with many brilliant qualities, an unfortunate man. An aid to Gates in the battle of Saratoga, second in command and then first, against the Indians on the Wabash, second in command at the battle of the Maumee, in 1794, commander in chief of the army of the United States, commissioner to receive Louisiana from France, Governor of Upper Louisiana, commander in chief against Montreal; still Wilkinson died in suspicion and disgrace—an exile in Mexico. While in Kentucky, was there an address to be written which should

pour forth her ardent feelings—a debate in her district conventions to be opened on her vital interests,—Wilkinson was equally the author of the one, and the speaker in the other. So varied, rich and polished were the powers and acquirements of this singularly versatile person, that whether in the field of Saratoga, the cabinet of Governor Miro, or in the convention of the backwoodsman of Kentucky, this gifted man, drew all eyes upon him, and was looked up to as a leader and a chief. His memoirs furnish one of the most curious exhibitions of the vicissitudes of a public officer which the service of this republic affords. Wilkinson was an ardent speculator in lands and anything else which pleased his ardent imagination—he was no conspirator, either with Burr or with Spain.

I will follow this essay no farther than to say, that the land companies of the country, in the early history of the West, had no more connection with any foreign government than they now have all around us. Land, in our rapidly augmenting country, is as natural a subject of traffic as bread and meat; and it would be quite as well to connect the latter with intrigues of foreign governments as the former.

I can now only say, at the close of this naked vindication of Kentucky statesmen, some of whom were most esteemed friends, and others respected on the traditions and records of the State, that I wish I had time or ability to enlarge upon the real and genuine *early spirit* of the West. It is a noble theme—it is to delineate that spirit which scaled the Alleghanies and spread the dominion of the Republic to the banks of the Mississippi—which vanquished confederacies of the most warlike savages on this Continent, fed and armed by a European power, and in fine, has substituted for the wilderness and savage man, fields ripe with the blessed fruits of the farmer's labors—sacred churches, noble schools and halls of free legislation; and above all, a people of high-spirited intelligent freemen. Is this not a debt which the civilization of the world owes to the early spirit of the West? This is the high mission of civilization which is now only fulfilling on the Pacific, amid the Placers of California, and the mountain gorges of Oregon—the appointed work which was begun in the stations of Kentucky and Tennessee. Are these not fruits worthier of a critics eye—worthier of a true historian's comment, who is imbued with the generous spirit of our own people, than the offences or mistakes of a few public men? What morbid taste is this, which prefers to feed on the garbage of stale and rotten slanders of ancient public servants, to feasting on the glorious works of the high and gallant deeds, which have spread a peace-and-labor loving people from the Alleghanies to the Pacific Ocean! What France, and Spain, and Great Britain, in the highest pride and power, have failed to do—the pioneers of the West, embracing the *Puritans* of the North-East, as much as the *Long-Knife* of Virginia, have greatly, wonderfully done, and are still doing, to the admiration of all true friends of humanity—civilizing and Christianizing America.

ART. III.—EARLY AND GROWING COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

In the following paper we shall hurriedly discuss the commerce of the United States, from the earliest authentic dates to the year 1833, and include a large number of interesting particulars, which have been overlooked by us, or been but slightly touched upon in previous articles. The period of 1833 is assumed as a very convenient one, for several reasons, among the chief of which is, that the elaborate statistics of Mr. Pitkins terminate there. When time admits, we shall, by examination of the year books of Congress, be able to bring down the subject with the same minuteness, to the present day, and furnish many important and valuable contrasts, &c.; but the reader, by reference to our last eight volumes, will find scattered under various heads, almost all the individual facts and particulars. We would point in confirmation to the article in vol. 1, on "The Origin and Progress of Commerce," and in vol. 2, on "The Progress of American Commerce," &c.

The discovery of America, and its subsequent colonization, gave an impetus to the commercial operations of Europe, which has been enlarging ever since. It is impossible to describe, in language sufficiently strong, the important bearings of this event upon the history and prospects of mankind.

The colonies of Great Britain in particular, as we may gather from the terms of the charters accorded them, were intended at the earliest period, as the poles of an extensive commerce which was to be added to the empire; and considering the character of the earliest emigrants, hardy, bold, enterprising, conversant with the general principles and advantages of trade by their education in so considerable a trading nation as Britain, and the character of the country they were peopling—extensive seaports, great and innumerable rivers, admirable bays and harbors, fertile soil, and favorable climate—this intention could by no means have appeared unreasonable.* Time has shown that the most enthusiastic expectations fell infinitely short of the reality.

With the struggles of the early colonists against man and nature, we all are familiar. A season of long probation had of necessity to be endured, and it served to form that hardy and resolute character which even yet adheres to their descendants. The New England pilgrims were the first, from their barren shores and rock-bound coasts, to go down to the sea, and assay its great perils. To this hardy, daring, and inimitable people, the boons of nature were to be found in the apparent denial of them all. Upon the pathless deep they are described in eastern gorgeousness, in the oratory of Burke, struggling at either pole, amid tumbling mountains of ice, in the frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis' Straits, beneath the arctic circle, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south.

Few particulars can be offered of the commerce of the seventeenth century. We know that in 1647 a trade had been opened from the northern ports to Barbadoes and others of the West Indies; that a collector of customs was appointed at Charleston in 1685, and that the

* Seybert, 54.

hardy enterprises of the Nantucket whalemén received their first impulse in 1690.

At the opening of the eighteenth century, the gross value of the exports and imports of all the American colonies, in their trade with all the world, did not exceed £740,000 sterling, or about three and one half millions of dollars, a sum which does not much exceed the average annual trade of the single states of Maine and Vermont, which are never regarded among our foreign trading states at all. It is less than our export alone of fish, oil, and candles.

A wider field began soon to appear. In 1731 parliament was petitioned to open the African trade to the Americans. The Pennsylvanians were already conducting profitable traffic in Surinam, Hispaniola, the West Indies, Canaries, and Newfoundland. "New England," said a chronicle of the times, "employs six hundred ships, sloops, &c., about one half of which sail to England."

The eyes of the mother country came soon to be opened to the dangers which threatened her from these aspiring, daring, and refractory children across the ocean. Like Phæton, they were stealing the horses of the sun, and unless arrested in their mad course, it was impossible to foresee the consequences. They had learned, too, to guide the reins of these horses. One may fancy the consternation in parliament. "The only use of colonies," said Lord Sheffield, "is the monopoly of their consumption, and the carriage of their produce." The same noble lord remarked, even after our independence, "It would hardly be the interest of the Americans to go to Canton, because they have no articles to send thither, nor any money."* "Nothing, nothing," declared their statesmen in parliament, "can be more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies."

One of the earliest acts of British jealousy and restriction was in 1730, and was aimed against the American trade with the Dutch and French colonies. This was followed up, in 1760, by the navigation act, which declared that certain specified articles of the produce of the colonies, and since known in commerce by the name of the "enumerated articles," should not be exported directly from the colonies to any foreign country, but that they should be first sent to Britain and there unladen, before forwarded to their final destination. What could be more preposterous and suicidal than such a proposition?

The act of 1764 provided further, that no commodity of the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe, shall be imported into the British plantations, but such as are laden and put on board in England, Wales, or Berwick-upon-Tweed, and in English-built shipping, whereof the master and two thirds of the crew are English.

In 1770 Mr. Burke announced with high gratulation in the House of Commons, that "our trade with America is scarcely less now than we carried on at the beginning of the century with all the world."

At the same period, Malachi Postlethwait, in an address to the parliament, remarked, "for if once a commercial union should take place between the British continental colonies and the islands, to a certain de-

* Seybert, and see his note.

gree they might think it worth their while probably to hazard the loss of the British markets, for the sake of the gain arising from the general freedom of trade to all other parts of the world. What then may become of our British navigation, to and from America? When that is lost, will not all our revenues, arising from our present American imports, be annihilated? and what will be the state of the public credit of this nation, when such a catastrophe should ever happen?"

The statistics of American commerce, from the opening of the century until the period of the Revolution, show a continued augmentation. During the troubles of that period, and of those which immediately preceded, some decline was of course inevitable. In 1771 the whole exports and imports of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, Carolina, and Georgia, fell but little short of \$30,000,000, having increased tenfold since the beginning of the century.

The war being closed, and an immense national debt of \$42,000,000 accumulated, exclusive of state indebtedness, Congress found it absolutely necessary to provide a system of revenue adequate to the exigencies of the country. Experience had shown that impost duties could alone be relied upon, and were in other respects the least objectionable mode of taxation. Under the articles of federation, such duties could only be levied by the states, who thus reserved to themselves the exclusive control over their commerce. This state of things was attended with the most awkward and embarrassing results, and seemed likely at once to destroy all the benefits of the independence which had just been realized. Congress was left without a revenue, and was paralyzed. Foreigners began to exhibit their jealousies of the growing republic, and hostility to its commerce. Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, rejected all overtures to enter into treaties of commerce with us.* Some of the states opened their trade free with all nations, thus holding out superior encouragements to their neighbors. New York, in this manner, laid the foundation of the empire she now maintains. From the free ports goods might be smuggled into other states. Tonnage duties in different states varied from one to three shillings sterling the ton.

As early as 1781 Congress prayed for the power to levy a duty of five per cent. ad-valorem, upon imports, to be continued until the payment of the debt. A further power of *regulating the commerce of the states*, was moved for in the same body, and negatived there. The states refused even to grant the duty.† In 1783 the proposition was again urgently renewed, limited to the term of twenty-five years, but was not carried into effect.‡

The darkest period was now at hand. The country, it is maintained, was drained of specie by the extraordinary preponderance of the imports over the exports for several years, being often as three to one in regard to Great Britain. The interest of the debt was unpaid, public credit gone, the debt itself considered of little value, and sold to many of its original holders for about one tenth of its nominal value. Private credit was also much impaired. During the war, the collection of debts was in a great measure suspended, and on the return of peace, goods were

* Marshall's Washington, p. 5, 182. † What States refused, Seybert, p. 57.

‡ Pitkins, p. 30.

imported by many individuals far beyond their means of payment, and the courts were filled with suits against delinquent debtors. The importing states took advantage of their situation, and levied duties on imports for their own benefit, at the expense of the other states.

"Thus burthened with public and private debts, and pressed with taxes, and with a scarcity of money, some of the states, in order to remedy the evil, had recourse to paper money and tender laws; and in one state there was an open insurrection, which threatened not merely the peace and existence of that state, but the peace and existence of the Union itself."*

Happily for the country, and for the interests of mankind, the wisdom of our fathers was adequate to the great emergency. A common danger suggested a convention of the states, which, after able, protracted, and patriotic deliberations, presented to the world the constitution, under which, for nearly three fourths of a century, we have prospered beyond all example. The hand of God should be marked in the result. Under this constitution, one of the first grants of power to Congress was that of regulating commerce with foreign nations, among the several states, and with the Indians.

Soon after the establishment of the present government, Mr. Jefferson, then secretary of state, in an answer to a call of the House of Representatives, made a report, in which he proposed a liberal system of commercial policy. "Instead of embarrassing commerce under piles of laws, duties, and prohibitions," he says, "it should be relieved from all its shackles in all parts of the world. Would even a single nation begin with the United States this system of free intercourse, it would be advisable to begin it with that nation."†

We have already marked the origin and progress of the various commodities which have in the past, and still make up the sum of our export trade, whether the product of agriculture or manufactures.

We propose now a review of the results of the American foreign commerce with all nations, since the formation of the government.

Scarcely had we entered into the family of nations, than there opened in Europe the fearful drama of the French Revolution, which in its results seemed once again to have involved the world in chaos. The United States, preserving her neutrality, became the common carrier for all nations, conducted the commerce of their colonies, and supplied them from her own resources with the results of her industry. Never, in the history of the world, was there a more rapid and extraordinary prosperity. Every other art and pursuit seemed eager to merge itself into commerce. Capital poured into this channel. The principles of trade and all experience were set at defiance. No adventure could be too rash for success. However, gold crowned the efforts of the most ignorant operators. What wonder that we became a nation of merchants, or that in population the United States rose at once to the character of the first commercial nation in the world.‡ "Fixed and permanent improvements were established throughout the United States," says Mr. Seybert; "the accumulated capital of our merchants enabled them to explore new sources of wealth; our cities were augmented and embellished; our

* Pitkin's Statistics, p. 31. † We extract from Seybert. ‡ Seybert.

agriculture was improved, our population was increased, and our debt diminished.

To exhibit in the most striking terms the state of things, we remark from the tables, that the total imports into the United States, from 1800 to 1808, eight years, exceeded eight hundred millions of dollars; whereas in the eight years ending with 1845, these imports did not reach nine hundred millions, though the population had augmented nearly three-fold. The export of domestic produce in the first period is fully one half that of the second. The total exports were as seven hundred millions then to nine hundred millions now; and what is the most remarkable of all, the United States, in the first eight years of the present century, conducted an export trade in foreign goods three and a half times greater than they do at this moment. In the single year 1805 the trade was as large as in the six years ending with 1847 taken together.

This prosperity in the infant Hercules of America awoke the keenest jealousy of European powers, and open hostilities. They began to impose annoying restrictions and interdictions, and other arbitrary acts, against which all protestation proved in vain. It seemed in despite of our most determined efforts, we must be involved in the conflicts of Europe. The spirit of the nation was aroused, and in despite of the opposition of the merchant classes an embargo was imposed in 1807, which was continued for two years. This had the effect of prostrating our commerce and was adopted as the sole remaining alternative of peace. The embargo said our Government, by teaching foreign nations the value of American commerce and productions, will inspire them with a disposition to practise justice. They depend upon this country for articles of first necessity, and for raw materials to supply their manufactories.*

To show the extent to which we were preyed upon by the European powers, it is only necessary to consider the captures made of our merchantmen between 1803 and 1812 when we were said to be at peace with all nations. The captures were for alleged violations of various illegal orders and decrees. The list was made out by the Secretary of State and is far from being complete, nor does it exhibit in any degree our losses, which occurred from delays &c. as well as from actual capture.†

Captures by British, 917 vessels.

"	French,	558	"
	Neopolitans,	47	"
	Danes,	70	"
<hr/>			
		1592	"

These spoliations were the subjects of after negotiations, viz.: with England, France, 1803, Florida Treaty, 1819.

In 1809 non-intercourse with Great Britain and France was substituted for the embargo, which gave such offence to the latter that she immediately condemned millions of American property as lawful

*Seybert.
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†Seybert, 76.

prize. The next year it was determined to remove this restriction if these powers would repeal their hostile decrees. Napoleon after playing a game of deception acceded in 1811. The course of Britain was unchanged, and the patience and patriotism of the American people enduring outrage no longer, cried to arms. In the fierce and bloody conflict which followed, the national honor was forever vindicated.*

During this year, or for example, in the years 1813 and 1814 together, our imports were less in amount than in any two years since 1790, and the export was only one-third as great in 1814 as in 1790. The country engaged, however, extensively in domestic manufactures.

From that period to this, the world has been in profound peace and engaged in the extension of arts, industry, enterprise and civilization. The great and benignant influences of such a state of things have been universally felt and we may indeed cherish the hope that between great Christian communities the battle-axe has been ground down into the plough-share and that nothing will soon be allowed to disturb the sacred amity and brotherhood of nations. "Peace has her victories as high," indeed infinitely higher than those of "war."

Soon after the treaty of peace, the British navigation laws were relaxed in our favor, and the orders in council of 1791 were upon this liberal basis. These gave way to the treaty of 1794, which provided for reciprocal privileges of trade. In 1815, by treaty the tonnage duties between the United States and the European possessions of Britain were equalized.

For the seven years ending in 1790, the declared value of British imports from America, which is much less than the real value averaged about four and a half millions of dollars, and the exports about eleven millions. In the seven years ending 1801, the American exports had on an average increased nearly four-fold and American imports two and one-half fold. The American exports in 1801 were seven-fold that of 1781, and the imports only about five-fold that of 1786.†

In 1821, our imports from Britain and Ireland were twenty-five millions, in 1831, forty-four million dollars, and in the year ending June 30, 1847, sixty-seven million five hundred and ninety-seven thousand six hundred and eight dollars. Our exports have in the same period, increased from twenty millions to thirty-two millions, and in 1847, eighty-six million one hundred and sixty-six thousand, seven hundred and thirty-five dollars. It is true that in the last year there were peculiar causes to influence the extent of our trade with these countries, viz. the famine there, and the low tariff of 1846.

By a comparison of the table of our trade with Britain at the beginning of the century and at the present time, we will find that in the first period it amounted to one-third of the whole American trade, and in the last period, one-half. Nothing can show more conclusively than this the importance of preserving peace and amity between the two na-

* The British orders were actually revoked five days before the declaration of war.

† Pitkins.

tions. As they increase in wealth and power, the value of their mutual intercourse must go on continually augmenting.

Another striking view presents itself here. In 1700 the average value of the United States commerce to Great Britain, was one-twelfth of the aggregate value of the whole of the commerce of that empire; in 1786, one-ninth; in 1822, one-eighth; and in the year 1849, one-fourth.

With the British East Indies we opened intercourse about the year 1783, and by order of Lord Cornwallis, the Governor, our vessels were admitted on favorable terms in 1788. In 1806 thirteen American vessels arrived from Canton, and as early as 1789 (Seybert) it was stated in the House of Representatives, that forty-seven vessels were on voyages to countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. Mr. Seybert, in speaking of this commerce in 1819, says, we have made much greater progress in this trade than the several nations of Europe had before us. In 1747 the British had only eight ships, and the Dutch but six, employed in the China trade. In 1789 there were at Canton, in China, three Portuguese, five Dutch, one French, one Danish, fifteen United States, twenty-one East India Company ships, and forty belonging to British subjects residing in India. In 1785 the first importations were made into the United States from China.

Our intercourse with the British East Indies was regulated by the treaty of 1794 and that of 1815. It was much greater in the beginning of the century than it has been since—the imports in 1807 were five million, the average from 1821 to 1833 did not exceed two million; in 1846-7 they were one and a half million. These imports prior to the tariff of 1816 were, for the most part, low-priced cotton goods. They are now, some embroidered woollens, cotton baggings, cork, flaxseed, fruits, spices, camphor, saltpetre, segars, indigo, cordage, twine, hemp, silk. Our exports have been largest in specie. In other articles they have seldom exceeded the one-third or one-fourth of imports. In 1846-7 they did not reach one hundred thousand dollars. The British East Indies include Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, etc.

With the British West Indies, the American trade has undergone great fluctuations. It has long been a subject of dispute. Mr. Pitt threw open this trade in 1783, upon the most liberal basis, for the Americans, by a bill which he introduced into Parliament, and which was laid on the table. The orders in council soon after, almost effectually suppressed this growing trade. The cardinal motive was the monopoly to British vessels of the carrying trade between the United States and the Islands; and Lord Liverpool, in his celebrated report, in 1791, regarded it not even a subject for negotiation, that American ships in the British colonies should be treated as British ships, and congratulated his country that the orders in council had operated to the increase of British navigation compared with that of the United States, in a double ratio; but it has taken from the United States more than it has added to that of Great Britain.

In 1794, Mr. Clay negotiated a treaty with a clause favorable to our West India commerce, but it was rejected by our government on the ground that it contained another clause excluding the carriage of cotton, sugar, &c., in our ships to any part of the world. In 1802, the British proposed a mutual abolition of the discriminating and countervailing

duties of the two countries, and a committee of congress reported favorably, but from the remonstrances of the merchant classes nothing was done. In 1815, the Commercial Convention between the two powers equalized the tonnage duties with the British European powers, but left those with the American colonies in the hands of the British government. That government soon excluded the Americans entirely from the West India trade, much embarrassing our navigation interest, and rendered greatly more prosperous that of Great Britain. The President of the United States referred to the subject in his Annual Message. By paying a light duty or removing all duty from certain articles of United States produce when imported from British colonies, and a very heavy duty when imported direct, and by removing duties upon importations in the colonies, the British government secured every possible advantage, since foreign ships were not admitted to bring or carry produce to the colonies.

The Americans, in retaliation, first laid a duty on British vessels from the West Indies, and then excluded them in 1818. The complaint of the West Indies, which followed, produced an Act of Parliament in 1822, opening certain of the ports to the vessels of such countries as allowed reciprocal advantages. Congress immediately opened a direct trade but refused to remove the discriminating tonnage duty without proof that American and British vessels were received there on equal footing. To this the British refused, imposing countervailing duties at once on our vessels.

In 1825, the British opened the trade of their colonies to all foreign nations, on the condition that the British commerce and navigation should be put on a footing with the most favored nations, by those nations that had no colonies. The United States were unwilling to grant such favor, and the ports were immediately closed against us, and our acts of exclusion were revived. In 1830, an Act was passed by Congress in regard to the West India and British colonial trade, which on the interpretation given to it by the American Minister and the President, was highly favorable to British navigation. By this agreement, American vessels could carry our produce to the islands on the same terms with the British and bring back return cargoes. They were not, however, allowed to carry foreign merchandise. The English, by an act of policy, admitted in their North American colonies American produce at merely nominal duties, and suffered them to be exported thence to the West Indies by British vessels at a much lower duty than they could be received there direct from the United States. The practical effect of this was to throw the whole trade into this channel, and vastly augment the British tonnage in comparison with our own. The act, however, gave us the island trade upon perhaps the very best terms we could have expected. The English, also, had the advantage of what is called the circuitous trade, viz.: to bring a cargo to the United States; to carry one to their own colonies, and to take in at the colonies a return cargo home. This was a clear advantage over us.

Between 1795 and 1804, our exports to British West Indies, varied from two to nearly ten millions, being an average of five and a half millions; the imports varied from three to seven millions, being an average of five millions. From 1821 to 1833, the tables give no very reliable

data, as the ports were sometimes opened and sometimes closed, and our trade necessarily took other channels. In none of these years did the import or export much exceed two million dollars.

At the adoption of the Constitution, our trade with France did not exceed seven million five hundred thousand dollars annually, including her colonies. Our imports were, coffee, sugar, rice, oils, fruits, brandies, liquors, cotton, laces, silk, linen, drugs, glass, hardware, etc.; our exports, fish, breadstuff, products of forests, tobacco, negroes, etc. In 1795, this trade went up to ten million dollars, but declined again very rapidly to the close of the century. In 1807 and 1808 our exports were very large, reaching from eleven to thirteen millions, which points up to 1833, they did not again pass and only once or twice equalled. Our imports from an average of one million dollars at the opening of the century averaged in 1831 to 1833 thirteen million dollars. With regard to the French islands, Mr. Pitkins thus compares their policy with that of Britain at the close of the last century. The policy of Britain was to monopolize the carriage of the articles, that of France to monopolize the articles themselves. Britain was willing the United States should have sugar and coffee if British ships carried them; France was willing the Americans might supply her plantations with what she could not supply them herself, but would not allow them to receive in return the valuable products of the islands which she monopolized to herself. Our trade increased notwithstanding. During the wars of Europe the ports were left entirely open, and France offered to secure their trade forever to the United States, on the condition their possession might be guaranteed to her. This was declined. Our trade became enormous, and we supplied the mother country through the islands. From 1795 to 1801, this trade averaged eighteen millions dollars, whilst from 1821 to 1833, it never exceeded two millions. In the first period, the imports were several times the exports, in the last the exports have generally been larger. The American trade with Hayti from 1821 to 1833, was larger than with all the French Islands.

The wars of the French Revolution, as we have remarked before, were most favorable to our neutral commerce. We supplied the Spanish Islands during most of the time, and our trade with them at the beginning of the century averaged twenty millions of dollars. The average from that period to 1820 was about five and a half millions exports. From 1820 we began to keep our accounts with Cuba and the South American States separately. From 1820 to 1833 our trade with Cuba averaged twelve millions annually, the imports invariably exceeding the exports largely, and was next in importance to that of England and France. The chief exports have been provisions, domestic manufacture, furniture, etc., etc. With the other Spanish Islands our trade from 1821 to 1833, varied from one to two millions. With Mexico, from 1835 to 1833, the average trade was about ten millions; imports generally the most; with Central America average about one-half million; with Columbia, two million dollars; Buenos Ayres, two million dollars; Chili, two million dollars; Peru, less than one million. To old Spain, herself we have exported domestic produce, etc., etc., and our trade at the opening of the century averaged six mil-

lions dollars, whereas, it has since varied from one to two millions. It was largest when the Peninsular wars raged.

With Portugal and dependencies, we have traded in wines, fruits, wheat, oil, staves, bedding, etc. From 1795 to 1801, our exports averaged five hundred thousand dollars, and imports near one million. From that period until 1820, except the years of war in Spain and Portugal, the average export was about one million. The imports and exports together have never since exceeded half a million. With the island of Madeira we have conducted about an equal trade; and with Brazil, since the government was removed there, and the other colonies, the trade from 1809 to 1820 averaged about one million dollars, since which it has gone up to from five to eight millions dollars.

From Russia we have chiefly imported hemp and duck. The average imports at the beginning of the century was one million, three hundred thousand dollars, but from 1821 to 1833, the average was near two million five hundred thousand dollars; our exports have seldom been one-half million, a very small part of which has been domestic produce. In 1810 and 1811, the export was between four and five millions dollars, a large part being destined for England. We send generally cotton, tobacco, rice, oak bark, coffee, sugar, dyewoods and spices. We also import iron, cordage, drillings, diapers, tickings, etc.

Since 1823, our accounts with Norway and Sweden have been kept together. With Sweden our trade is chiefly in iron. From 1821 to 1833 the imports averaged about one million, whilst the exports have seldom exceeded one-third of that amount. From 1795 to 1801, we traded with Swedish West Indies to the amount of one million dollars annually. The trade became much more considerable afterwards, when the trade with other islands was carried on through these. Since 1821, this trade has declined at last to about one hundred thousand dollars per annum.

The account with Denmark and Norway was conjoined until 1823. This trade, from one million of dollars in 1800, rose to one and a half millions in 1805-7. During our non-intercourse with Britain and France in 1809-10, and whilst Hamburg was occupied with the French, quantities of cotton, tobacco, sugar and coffee went to these quarters, destined for other countries. From 1812 to 1833, this trade averaged only three or four hundred thousand, the imports being scarcely anything. With the Danish as with the Swedish West Indies, our trade did once reach three to five millions of dollars. From 1821 to 1833, the average has been not far from four millions of dollars. The trade with the British Islands was conducted through them.

With Hamburg, Bremen, and the northern ports of Germany, we traded largely before their occupation by French troops. Hamburg has been the great depot for Germany and the North of Europe. By the Elbe and Weser, and the canals, German manufactures are brought to Hamburg. They are the cities of imports for Germany. In 1795 our trade with these cities was one and a half millions, in 1797-8 and '99 it averaged eighteen millions dollars; the exports generally doubling, and often many times exceeding the imports, and being for the most in foreign goods. Since 1821 the trade has averaged about four and a half millions dollars.

For the same causes that the Hamburg trade advanced, that with the Netherlands did also. The continental system was never thoroughly enforced there, even under Louis Bonaparte. The average trade from 1795 to 1801 was, exports, five millions; imports, one and a half millions. From 1804 to 1807 the exports averaged near fifteen millions dollars a year, chiefly foreign produce. From 1821 to 1833 the whole trade has varied from three to four millions a year, the exports being double the imports. In 1833 the trade with Belgium was kept separate, and was one million dollars. Our exports are tobacco, rice, cotton, etc., sugar and coffee; imports, woollen, linen, spirits, and various manufactures. With the Dutch West Indies we have prosecuted considerable trade; to the extent, one time, of five to eight millions; from 1821 to 1833 it has seldom exceeded one to one and a half million. With the Dutch East Indies we conducted the carrying trade from 1795 to 1801. In the last year the exports reached four millions dollars, being coffee, spices, etc. The trade has seldom exceeded one and a half millions since.

We have exported to Italy fish, sugar, coffee, pepper, etc., and imported wines, silks, brandies, fruits, bonnets, oil, paper, rags. The trade has never exceeded three millions dollars a year, and has most generally been from one to two millions; the imports being in large excess.

Our trade with China opened in 1784. In 1785 Captain Dean, in a little sloop of eighty tons and seven men, made a successful voyage to Canton. In 1789 we had more vessels at Canton than any other nation, except Britain. The imports are teas, silks, nankeens, China-ware; with the former we supplied Europe during the wars. We have consumed, 1789 to 1800, two and a half million pounds of tea, annually; from 1801 to 1812, three million three hundred and fifty thousand pounds; from 1821 to 1833, seven millions. The Americans also prosecute trade between China and other parts of the world.

Our direct trade with Canton from 1821 to 1833, has varied from one to five million exports, and three to seven million imports. The exports are furs, ginseng, cottons, raw cotton, &c.; specie, quicksilver, opium, cloths. The specie export has sometimes reached five million, the average from 1828 to 1833 was four million dollars. We formerly conducted a large fur trade from the North-West to China in addition. Our hardy mariners and traders were found in the most perilous seas. The inhabitants of Stonington, Connecticut, says Mr. Pitkins, in their little barks of fifty to eighty tons, pursued the sealing business, finding a market now at home. The amount of furs carried into China by the Americans, from 1800 to 1803, was one million six hundred thousand dollars. From 1815 to 1817 the average was three hundred thousand dollars a year. In 1819 the Americans began to carry English goods from England to China, to the amount of near one million dollars a year. The whole value of trade with Canton, on American account, from 1804 to 1833, was, in periods of ten years:—1st period, average imports, three million dollars—exports, three million dollars; 2d. period, imports, six and a half million dollars—exports, six million dollars; 3d period, imports, five million eight hundred thousand dollars—exports, six million dollars. In 1833 the exports and imports were eight million dollars each. Our exports to Canton are specie, bills on England, and mer-

chandise. The latter being in general one-third or one-quarter, but sometimes one-half of the whole export.

In regard to navigation, which is so important in its connection with commerce, we may remark, that the two are not necessarily co-existent in the same degree in every country. The one applies to all the various transfers of commodities from hand to hand, and the other to their transportation from place to place by water. This transportation may be between different portions of the same country, or between one country and another, and receives accordingly the designations of coastwise or foreign. The former will, in most countries, be the greater in amount, though not always. Both may be in the hands of foreigners, to a very considerable extent, and usually are. The shipping of one nation may conduct the trade of another. Some nations are more especially maritime than others, and from peculiar advantages are enabled to build and man shipping at a much lower expense; and, as ship-room, or freight, is governed by the rules of all other commodities, it can, of course, be afforded less where it costs less. There is no patriotism in any country which will employ its own shipping in preference to foreign at a higher cost. The cheapest vessel will get the freight.

As the possession of shipping is a great source of national pride, independent of the substantial advantages in supporting the naval or war power, and an immense source of profit and wealth, in the same manner with commerce or manufactures, it is not surprising that most countries have endeavored, in every way, to build up this interest among themselves, and, as far as possible, limit it among others. The utmost jealousies have been, and are still evinced. Legislation has exhausted its thousand expedients, in navigation systems, countervailing, retaliations, bounties, *et omne genus*. Treaties upon treaties have been made and broken. Every other trade in the world has flourished but free trade. The weaker nations regard this as fatal to them, and the stronger are timid in its adoption.

As early as 1670 the increase of shipping in New England was complained of by Sir Josiah Child, an English writer. The whole amount of tonnage employed in the colonial trade in 1770, is estimated at three hundred thousand tons. A report of the lords' privy council shows that the proportion owned by British merchants to that owned by the colonial, was as thirty-four to fifteen, in all the colonies. Seven-eighths of the southern shipping was British. At that period we were in the habit of selling colony-built ships in Great Britain, as a source of profit. In 1772 the colonies built one hundred and eighty-two vessels—twenty-six thousand five hundred and forty-four tons. Of these, New England built one hundred and twenty-three, Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas and Georgia, twenty-five.

After the peace and before the adoption of the constitution, our shipping regulations were conflicting, and without regular system. Most of the States imposed duties upon foreign vessels, but New York, being most liberal, laid the foundation of her immense foreign commerce. No better proof can be alleged of the illiberality of all restrictions, and their positive injury.

Congress, however, in 1789, took the matter in hand, imposed heavy discriminating duties against foreign tonnage, prohibited the coasting

trade to foreigners, and, by such duties upon tea, secured the China trade to our own citizens. The act of 1790, imposed a duty of from thirty to fifty cents a ton on foreign vessels, that on American being but six cents, and also ten per cent. higher duty upon merchandise imported in such vessels. On a vessel of six hundred tons, including the light-house duty of fifty cents the ton, the duties would be five hundred to six hundred dollars, and about as much more, on the lowest estimate, on her freight. Here then we have a protection to the American vessel of twelve hundred dollars, equivalent to thirty to fifty per cent. on the value of cargo freight.

In 1789 the tonnage of New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, S. Carolina and Georgia, was estimated at four hundred and thirty-seven thousand dollars, of which two hundred and eighty thousand was American, being three-fifths. For all the colonies in 1791, the foreign vessels employed in the foreign trade, was 41.4 to the 100, compared with the American vessels—the French was but one-thirtieth, Spanish one-forty-eighth, Netherlands one-fifty-seventh.

Under this navigation law, foreign shipping began gradually to decline in our ports, whilst the American rapidly advanced. By 1811 the foreign was but three-quarters to the hundred, owing, however, in a considerable degree, to European wars, etc. Indeed, our tonnage was already but a third less than that of all Europe in 1676, according to Sir William Petty. "In twenty years," says Mr. Seybert, "we raised our tonnage so as to be equal to that of Great Britain one hundred years after they had passed the navigation act." The lords' privy council, in England, referred to this rapid decline in their navigation with the United States, which they exhibited by statistical results. They proposed reciprocity treaties, but not to extend to their colonies. To this trade they could not think of admitting foreigners on equal terms. By the acts of 1797 and 1802, they imposed heavy countervailing and tonnage duties upon our vessels. The King, however, was soon after authorized to remit the duties if it could be done reciprocally. A committee of Congress admitted the British had secured by their duties the carrying of our tobacco, cotton, rice indigo, etc.; but their proposed compromise was met by the protests of the merchants, and laid on the table. In 1812 an additional duty of one dollar and fifty cents per ton on foreign ships was laid on, it was said, for revenue, though it produced but eight thousand dollars more than the lower duties. A convention between the two countries, in 1815, equalized the duties where the vessels were freighted with the produce of their own countries. We have seen how this resulted, and the other restriction acts of our own government, in 1817. In 1818 it was stated in Congress, that the Americans transported but two million one hundred and seventy-seven thousand nine hundred and twenty-four dollars of the trade with the West Indies and British North American Colonies, whilst the English carried eleven million three hundred and twenty-two thousand and seventy-six dollars of the most bulky articles, one-half being of our own production.

Mr. Seybert, whilst he maintains we have gained so much by our navigation laws, admits that our position as a neutral nation during the wars of Europe, did very much. But he says, independent of these wars, viz., before the breaking out of the English and French war, in 1793, our

tonnage had greatly increased. It would be easy to account for this from natural causes.

It appears, that at the close of the last century, little over one-quarter of the tonnage engaged in the trade of France was French; and during the wars British ship building greatly declined, which was the case with ours on the return of peace.

In 1810 the shipping of the United States was one ton to every 5.8 inhabitants, and its whole value, at fifty dollars a ton, seventy-one million two hundred and thirty-nine thousand one hundred and fifty dollars. In England, in 1813, the registered tonnage was one to 6.69 inhabitants.*

Vessels of five hundred tons have been built in the west. Before the revolution, we annually built about twenty thousand tons; the average from 1803 to 1816 was over one hundred and two thousand tons. During the greater part of the same period, the average in Britain was but one hundred thousand, but this was during the European wars.

In regard to the number of seamen, it appears that the English varied at the end of the last century, from one man to thirteen to one man to twenty tons; the average being one to fifteen. The Americans employ one man to seventeen tons, except the fisheries, which is one to twelve and a half tons.

Mr. Pitkins states the whole British tonnage, in 1829, on authentic returns, nineteen thousand one hundred and ten vessels, tonnage two million one hundred and ninety-nine thousand nine hundred and fifty-nine. These were registered, and included all but the smaller vessels. Mr. Marshall, a British writer, in 1833, states the whole number of British vessels in foreign commerce about six thousand seven hundred and fifty, or one million one hundred thousand tons. The whole British registered tonnage, in 1829, only exceeded that of the United States, in 1832, three hundred and twenty-eight thousand six hundred and fifteen tons. On the authority of Mr. Marshall's statement, in regard to the number of trips made by each vessel, Mr. Pitkins estimates British coasting trade in 1832, including Ireland, eight hundred and twenty-eight thousand tons. In 1830 it was stated in Congress, that British shipping had increased, from 1814 to 1828, fifty per cent., whilst other nations trading with her, but three per cent. Mr. Marshall, however, asserts a diminution in British shipping in the same time.

A committee of Congress, in 1830, doubted that the foreign wars gave a first impulse to our navigation. This impulse, say they, was from the rich and increasing agricultural resources, the removal of all the countervailing laws of the States, our commercial enterprise, and a foreign commerce without restrictions.†

* By calculation made in 1808, it appears one ton is required for the carriage of every forty-one or fifty-one dollars exports American products.—SEYBERT.

† The reader has perceived the present article is only brought down to 1833, we intend its completion to date in future volumes.

ART. IV. THE SCUPPERNONG AND WINE MAKING.

HAVING made estimates of the cost and profit of Southern vineyards, somewhat in detail in several of your previous volumes, it occurred to me since sending them on for publication, to send also for your excellent periodical an account of two scuppernong vines, I planted for a neighbor about 12 years since. The two vines in cost, amounted to 50 cents; and for setting them out I charged nothing, as a gratuity to a good neighbor and friend, and to give an impulse to the vineyard cause near at home. They were put on the side of the garden next his grove of oak trees around the dwelling. The expense of working the ground and of trimming them laterally in time of growth, and fall to keep them from becoming bushy, was trifling; say 50 cents a year, for two years, till they began to yield the worth of their attendance; and then for five years thereafter, their yield more than repaid their expenses; including posts and scaffolding, near and under the trees to which the vines were directed, and upon which after reaching, their branches were suffered to expand. This brings them to their eighth year, when they bore abundantly, and each yielded its barrel of wine besides a plenty of the most delicious fruit for a large family. For three years past, each vine has yielded enough grapes for two barrels of wine as well as family fruit; and with no cost worth speaking of for support or scaffolding, the oak trees supplying these. Their branches extend some 100 feet among the trees, and four or five pretty large shade trees are literally loaded with grapes. A beautiful sight to behold.

To epitomize the cost and profit, say—

Two well rooted Scuppernong vines,	-	-	-	50
Setting them out and stakes for first supporting the main stems,	-	-	-	50
For attendance and trimming, 2 years,	-	-	-	1 00
				<hr/>
				\$2 00

Or say for all cost and trouble, their fruit for family use apart from the yield of wine, abundantly pays. The widow of the gentleman for whom I set out the vines, makes the wine with about a fourth brandy and 1 lb. of common sugar per gallon. And a most excellent article it is, admired by her neighbors and all that partake of it, readily commanding a dollar per gallon when she sells it.

The annual clear profit of the two vines may be estimated as follows:

60 Gallons of wine at 1 dollar per gallon,	-	-	-	\$60 00
15 Gallons brandy, at 75 cents per gallon,	-	-	-	11 25
60 lbs. of common sugar at 8 cents per lb.,	-	-	-	4 80
3 Hands a day to gather the grapes and make the wine, at				
50 cents each,	-	-	-	1 50
Cask to contain the wine,	-	-	-	1 00
One person to superintend the process of making the wine and to tun the liquor,	-	-	-	1 00
Racking the liquor into another cask,	-	-	-	1 00
				<hr/>
Profit,	-	-	-	\$39 45

So about forty dollars is the clear annual profit of these two scupper-

nong vines, indicating their worth to be seven hundred dollars at 6 per cent interest; and that from the trifling investment of about two dollars. Can any agricultural profit exceed this? And according to the sound maxim, that "what has been done may be done again under like circumstances," there is no telling how vast the agricultural revenue to all the South may be from this grape alone, if our citizens were once "wide awake to its great merits."

But as the scuppernong juice is the basis for wines of every grade of excellence, and as I make them in quality and price from one dollar to six per gallon, indicating different degrees of excellence, the aforesaid profits might have been greatly enhanced by using doubly refined sugar as the safe-keeping, enriching ingredient in making the wine.

I prefer, however, bringing forward examples of wine made in the most simple and most safe way; or so made that none need fear imitating the process. For if any operate with scuppernong juice mixed well in tunning, or after putting into the cask with one-third good spirits, or the quantity Mr. Longworth advises in his letter of 1847, in Patent Office report, there is no danger but that the result will be a good safe keeping wine, or very excellent medicinally and otherwise.

Indeed, spirits are safer than sugar as the ingredient to be added to any juice for wine. And therefore, the people of Madeira, and other vintners of Europe, making the least wine, do wisely as to their profit at least, in using a plenty of spirits. In using sugar more attention is required to rack off the wine from one cask into another, and otherwise to guard against acidity and injury, or spoiling. But with about one third good spirits when incorporated by shaking in the cask after the juice of any kind of grape has been poured in duly prepared by straining through folds of a woollen cloth; the result, in a month or so is a good safe-keeping wine. After it is drawn off by a fauset a little above one of the lower ends of the cask on its side, some quantity of sediment will be found indicating that a gentle fermentation had taken place. But any one wishing a wine of highest grade of excellence from genuine scuppernong juice, can have it by using at least three lbs. of doubly refined loaf sugar per gallon, and racking from one cask to another several times in the course of a few months. And in this case it will be found that fermentation has taken place, and alcohol generated in the wine as the pure safe-keeping principle, or such as pervading all vegetable creation as the preservative part thereof. Indeed, by adding either spirits or sugar to make wine, it is merely increasing the very principles or pure ingredients in grape juice that constitute the basis nature has provided for enriching and preserving the wine. For, destitute of alcoholic and saccharine principles, there can be no wine.

By good spirits for making wine, I mean either brandy divested of any peculiar taste by age, or any kind of strong spirits, as new brandy or whiskey divested of any peculiar taste by being doubly rectified through charcoal and sand. I rectify so as to make the best of pure spirits out of any strong spirit liquor. The wine therefore has the peculiar taste of the grape from which it is made; and this taste is one of the chief excellences of the wine. I have tried distilling grape juice and mixing the brandy thereof with the same kind of juice as that distilled. But I cannot myself perceive that the wine made with such in-

redients has a decided superiority over that made with any sort of well rectified spirits. I here remark, that as to preserving the peculiar exquisite zest of the genuine scuppernong grape in its wine, nothing is superior as an ingredient for enriching and safe keeping, to doubly refined white sugar. And the reason appears to be, that nothing approaches so near the taste of this grape as the delicately fine taste of said sugar. And the wine made from this sugar and genuine scuppernong juice is as limpid as water and as exquisite in taste as can be well imagined. Gentlemen and ladies in Raleigh, our capital, to whom I sell it yearly, call it nectar. I call it Scuppernong Madeira. But to make it genuine, the juice must be from the genuine grape or scuppernong proper. I call it scuppernong proper, to distinguish it from the dark colored scuppernong so called, or a sort of muscadine, and also to distinguish it from many spurious kinds of white grapes called scuppernong; or such as sometimes are raised from scuppernong seed.

The seed grapes, too, like the seed of apples very rarely produce any thing like the original. I have had quite a number of seedlings bearing from the genuine scuppernong, and of almost all colors and sizes; the fruit, though all resembling the muscadine family of grapes; and of all I never found but one vine that produced fruit any way near the excellency of the parent vine. The only way to propagate the genuine, I find, is by layers and grafting. For scuppernong cuttings seldom or never succeed. As there are many spurious kinds of scuppernong in the South that tend to disgrace the genuine, I close this article, written in rather a desultory way, by describing the

Genuine White Scuppernong Proper.—From most reliable information, this grape has its origin and name from Scuppernong Island, in Roanoke river, in lower part of North Carolina. I presume its greatest perfection is had in its native place and state; though doing well, I learn in most locations south of latitude $27\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, as in Florida, as a most intelligent gentleman writes me. Its vine stem and leaves resemble the common muscadine of the woods, plentiful in most parts of our Southern Union, stem hard and smooth. But while in shape of the leaves this resemblance is marked, their color is a whitish light green instead of dark. The berries like the muscadine and fox grapes, grow in clusters. In general three or four compose a cluster; but I have frequently counted near twenty. The genuine scuppernong grape is round, skin smooth, color a bright lightish green when *unripe*, but *ripe*, it assumes a whitish yellow hue, though some berries when ripe, in color are a greenish white and almost transparent. The berries generally about three inches diameter, but not unfrequently I have measured them three and a half inches round, and in two instances four. A plate of genuine ripe scuppernong grapes are so aromatic as to perfume a room with a delightful fragrance.

ART. V.—SOME REMARKS ON AGRICULTURE AND OUR AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

THE first cultivator, the Robinson Crusoe of his day, says Mr. Carey in his ingenious work upon the Past, the Present and the Future, has neither axe nor spade. He works alone. Population being small, land of course is abundant. He may select for himself without fear of his title being disputed. But after the appropriation of soils, the extension of industry and numbers, a state of things altogether different begins to exist.

Though, in its beginning, agriculture be a rude pursuit, requiring but little of industry or of intelligence, in its progress through a later stage of society, and as population becomes dense, it arises to the rank of a science requiring and admitting of the highest development of skill, the most extensive researches and profoundest judgment. The primitive husbandry of the Hindoos and that of the best class of English farmers are almost at an infinite remove from each other.

There are various adequate causes for the slow and interrupted progress of agricultural science all over the world. In new countries like America, the extent and fertility of lands have rendered any other than the most moderate attention, in general, unnecessary. In all countries the impossibility of any combinations among farmers, or division of labors such as is found in the mechanical and manufacturing pursuits, and which have carried them so soon to their present high degree of perfection, is felt and acknowledged. Besides what is insisted upon by Mr. Malthus and his followers, and we believe with great truth, the later "applications of capital" to land, or in other words *improvements* are not attended with so high a per centage of profit as those of an earlier date. Though by careful attention to soils their productiveness may long be preserved, their resuscitation when exhausted is a hopeless and often unproductive business. Indeed, Adam Smith states the principle broadly, that agriculture is not so much intended to increase as to direct the fertility of the soil.

Though, on a comparison with other pursuits, agriculture be found to possess no particular advantage in regard to pecuniary profits, and, in fact, to be behind many others in this respect, yet has it in all ages, even the most ancient, been the subject of general preference among men and nations. The Bible affords us many beautiful pictures of nomadic agricultural life. The early princes of Greece labored at the plough with their own hands, and the great poets and philosophers of that country have not thought it unworthy of their muse or the highest philosophy. The genius of Homer and Hesiod, and the science of Theophrastus are recognized here. The Romans interwove agriculture curiously in their religion and superstitious rites. Their most distinguished statesmen and generals had patronymic names, derived from that of some vegetable of which their ancestors were the successful producers. The leading men of the state toiled in the fields, as Cincinnatus, Curius, Dentatus, Fabricius and Regulus. Thus was it as Plinny held that the earth took pleasure in being cultivated by the hands of men crowned with laurels and decorated with triumphal honors. The names

of Cato, Varro, Virgil, Columella, Pliny, Palladius, &c., belong to the bibliography of agricultural science.

Well has it been observed by Dr. Smith, the beauty of the country, besides the pleasures of a country life, the tranquillity which it promises, and, wherever the injustice of human laws does not disturb it, the independence which it really affords, have charms that more or less affect every body, and as to cultivate the ground was the original destination of man, so in every stage of his existence he seems to realize a predilection for this original employment.

There is one consideration, however, which should be brought home to the agriculturalist and enforced upon every occasion, and it is, that although, despite the teachings of Mons. Quesnai, he be not the only—he and his art are in all the world, without question, the greatest—producer of wealth. The gross product of agriculture will always greatly exceed that of manufactures and commerce, even when they are at their greatest advantage. Thus, in Great Britain, four millions of agriculturalists raise a sufficiency of food for themselves and for fourteen millions besides, who are employed in trade and manufactures. In France the agriculturalists are 2 to 1 to other classes, in America 12 to 1, in Poland 20 to 1.*

Let it be remembered, too, that agriculture and agricultural improvements make the only *permanent* additions to a country's greatness, or provide for all the contingencies of the future. No country in which the science of agriculture is carried to high perfection, and which presents the picture of general agricultural development and improvement, has ever yet or can ever be swept away by those causes which have overwhelmed and destroyed many of the great commercial and manufacturing powers, leaving often only to conjecture the sites which they occupied. What vestiges remain to us of Tyre and Sidon, of Palmyra and Alexandria, Venice, Genoa and Pisa, Florence and the Hanse Towns, great commercial and manufacturing communities of bye-gone days?†

When the scourges of the Roman Empire swept down from the north into the fertile fields of the Mediterranean, the law of arm rather than of agriculture usurped the sway. Industry in Europe was paralyzed, and upon its ruins rose the iron rule of the feudal system which resolved the great masses of society into an absolute and hopeless bondage fatal to all improvement. Fields were converted into forests for chase. The domain of the king reached over all the lands in his realm, and he distributed them out to his favorites to be held at his arbitrary will and pleasure. Thus did those lordly chieftains, independent of all the world but their sovereign, and brooking little dependence even upon him, assert their territorial rights and parcel them out in minor proportions, to the vassals, leet-men, yeomanry or people, with ingenious tenures, which exhausted the products of labor and enterprise in the rapacious exactions of a Suzerain lord and master. But when the feudal system tottered upon its base and fell at last in a mighty ruin, scattering its castellated remains over Europe; the world began that rapid stride in the career of progress which has crowded into a generation the events of a previous thousand years.‡

* Allison.

† Adam Smith.

‡ Commercial Rev. iv. 443.

The escape of science from the thralldom of bigotry and hypothesis, the regeneration of man from the tyrannies of despotic power, the growth of towns and cities, the enlarged foreign policy and commerce of states, the immense facilities of internal communication, have all been instrumental in advancing to a high state of improvement the agriculture and agricultural classes of most civilized nations.

From the earliest permanent settlement in America, agriculture became the chief employment and support of the people. The first colonists, where the land would admit, went to work in good earnest, and where it would not, as we are told by Mr. Burke, they went out to struggle with the monsters of the great deep. The colonial charters, and in fact the whole policy of the mother country, however absurdly she may have repressed the spirit of manufacturing and commercial industry, were always attended with the very best designs towards the promotion of agriculture. As this pursuit in the infancy of the colonies came to be interrupted by Indian wars, internal dissensions, disease, or the wild search after precious metals, there were induced periods of destitution and famine, of which history not unfrequently makes mention. For whatever else a people may be dependant upon their neighbors, especially when removed by the breadth of oceans, to no extent and for no period is it possible to be dependant for the articles of daily food and nourishment, without at times the most frightful results. It would require all the navies in the world to transport a sufficiency of food to support the people of Ireland a single year.

The date of the first growth of the colony of Virginia is fixed in 1613 or 1614, when the system of community of property in all the results of the year's industry was set aside, and the lands parcelled out among settlers in proportions of fifty acres each. Then began the advance of agriculture and population.

The agricultural products of the United States have been classed as follows:—

1. Those which constitute vegetable food, as wheat, flour, rice, indian corn, rye, peas, beans, oats, potatoes, &c.
2. The products of animals, as beef, tallow, hides, butter and cheese, pork and lard, or the animals themselves when exported.
3. Cotton and sugar.
4. Tobacco.
- 5 Other products.

We shall make a few cursory remarks upon each, beginning with:—

WHEAT.—This staple was brought from Europe by the first colonists, where it was known and in use from the earliest periods. Its peculiar adaptation to the soil and climate of the Middle and Western States has caused its production to augment in an extraordinary ratio. Perhaps one-half of the present crop is now realized west of the mountains. The unlimited territories of the Union in the north-west, including even Oregon, which have yet to be taken into cultivation, many of the greatest fertility, render it almost impossible to estimate the future amount of this crop.

There are no means of determining the annual growth of wheat in the United States prior to the census of 1840, except by approximate cal-

culations founded upon the export, and we must be dependant upon this census more or less for later estimates.

It is known that in 1770, 751,240 bushels of wheat, and 448,868 barrels of bread and flour were exported from the United States, equal to very nearly three millions of bushels. The returns after this are not satisfactory until after the adoption of the constitution.

Our chief markets for wheat have been the West Indies, Spain and Portugal, and Great Britain. The West Indies have always been a customer, and in time of short harvests Britain has taken large quantities. During the troubles in Spain and Portugal in 1811, '12 and '13, our exports in that quarter were enormous.

With a sufficient foreign market, the produce of grain in the United States might be stimulated to almost any extent. In the supply of European nations, the powers of the Baltic are our boldest competitors, and it has been supposed, though we think without good reason, that except in extraordinary seasons, they must destroy the value of our competition.

In 1840, the British consuls in the wheat-growing regions of Europe made answer to a circular of Lord Palmerston, in which they very nearly agreed that the productions of these countries are not susceptible of any augmentation without extraordinary improvements, which are not to be expected. The roads, also, are execrable, and the seaports too far removed. The gross products of all these countries available for export, they estimate at about eighteen million bushels—not exceeding one-seventh the crop of the Union. In Mr. Ellsworth's report to Congress, we see the disadvantages under which Dantzic—one of the most important grain districts—labors in comparison with the United States. It appears the grain is brought from Poland in rude flatboats, open to the weather, at twenty-five cents per bushel. From this exposure, it must afterwards be dried and stored, at an expense of six cents per bushel; freight thence to England, fifteen cents per bushel—equal to forty-six cts. The whole expense from Illinois to Liverpool, he estimates at thirty-eight. The crops upon the continent, too, are much more precarious than in the United States, and exports are frequently interrupted by prohibitions, which do not take place with us.*

The cost of producing wheat in the United States is thus given from actual returns, by Mr. Burke. The amounts are average:

In New Hampshire	- - - - -	1 10
" New York, west	- - - - -	64
" Pennsylvania	- - - - -	40
" Ohio, northern	- - - - -	50
" Michigan	- - - - -	28 to 67½
" Indiana	- - - - -	25 to 35

Thus, a barrel of flour from New York at Liverpool, would be:

5 bushels wheat at 64 cents	- - - - -	3 20
Grinding, &c., 30c.; bbl. 33c.	- - - - -	0 63
Freight to N. Y., on canals, &c.	- - - - -	0 68
" Liverpool, average	- - - - -	0 39
Insurance, etc.	- - - - -	0 25
		<hr/>
		5) 5 15

Price in Liverpool, per bushel wheat - - 1 03

* For full statistics of wheat see previous volumes, and especially vol. 1.

RICE was known and cultivated in the East, time out of memory, and has, in every age, constituted the chief article of food in those populous countries. It is cultivated in parts of South America, in Hungary, Lombardy, Westphalia, Italy, etc. A crop has even been obtained upon the Thames. The best rice in the world, however, is that of Carolina. As early as 1666, in a description of Carolina, by Horne, it is said, that "the meadows are very proper for rice." Its first introduction was accidental. Landgrave Smith, Governor of the Province, who had been in Madagascar, having a garden of low ground in Charleston, thought an attempt might be made in rice, and it most fortunately happened, about the same time, 1694, a vessel in distress, from Madagascar, put into that port. In the cook's bag was a little rough rice, which was presented to the Governor. He planted it; and from this small beginning has grown up the great rice region of that State, which has been such an exhaustless source of wealth.

The records of exportation of rice previous to 1720, are not extant, though in 1707 John Archdale mentions seventeen ships from that colony, with rice, skins, pitch, tar, &c.*

INDIAN CORN, or maize, was found native among the Indians of America, on every part of the continent. It is the original and spontaneous product of the New World, and it may be believed, will become an extensive article of food in other countries, as it has always been, in some of its various forms, in ours. So much persuaded was the late Mr. Cobbett of the importance of this grain, that he made every exertion to introduce its growth and consumption into England, as a cheaper and better article of food than any they used. After the discovery of America, maize was introduced into Europe, and is now cultivated in the southern parts. The very strong prejudices which the English have had against the use of corn, is now giving way, and the late Irish famines must do much to remove it altogether. The people of that country had an idea once, that to eat it would turn them black.†

Maize is the crop, of all others, says Mr. Johnson, best adapted to the United States, where it is cultivated on every variety of soil, from one extremity of the Union to the other. It constitutes the mainstay of the cereal farmer, most depended upon to furnish food and provender to man and beast. There is no plant, certainly none of such vigorous growth, which will so long continue highly productive when raised year after year upon the same soil.‡

Stock and cattle raising, fall more naturally within the agricultural class than within any other. It is from the soil that these derive subsistence; and some degree of attention to that soil is always necessary, even with the most favorable pasturage.

There is a great difference in the attention paid to stock raising in the infancy and maturity of society. Where the lands are unimproved, cattle are more numerous and cheaper than bread. After agriculture is far

* See vol. 1 for a complete history of rice, in all its particulars, by Mr. Allston, of South Carolina.

† See English Review lately, article on Ireland.

‡ Whether corn be of Asiatic or American origin, ably discussed, see Johnson's Dict. Maize. In our June number, 1846, appear elaborate statistics of Indian corn.

advanced the pastures become insufficient, and cultivated lands will be applied to this business. The value of stock must, then, in addition to the expense of attendance, be at least equal to that of the crops which might be realized by tillage. Bread and butcher's meat come, then, to a par. Indeed, if ordinary pastures were not as profitable as cultivated land, they would be soon cultivated.

The United States, from a very early period, had a sufficiency of animal products to make large exportations abroad. This portion of our export becomes every year more diversified and extensive. "Though all the cattle," observed Adam Smith, near a century ago, "of the European colonies in America, were originally carried from Europe, they soon multiplied there, and became of so little value, that even horses were allowed to run wild in the woods without thinking it worth while to claim them."*

COTTON.—This great staple, which has raised a revolution in the world, and changed almost entirely the character and comfort of the clothing which indigent man usually requires, belongs principally to the history of our country, and, we might say, the history of our very generation.

Cotton is indigenous to America. Though not the most beautiful in its fabrics, it yields to none in its cheapness, comfort and health, in the coldest as in the hottest climates.

It is conjectural how remote are the uses of cotton, or to what extent. From the word *carpas*, in Esther—oriental for cotton—it is supposed the Jews were acquainted with it. Herodotus, four hundred years before Christ, makes mention of the tree as growing in India, from which cloth was made. Some of the generals of Alexander, in the East, noticed and described the cotton wool. The use of this fabric among the Greeks and Romans goes back but a little beyond the Christian era, and it was then only as an article of the most exquisite luxury.

It has long been supposed that cotton cloths were made in remote antiquity in Egypt, and that the mummies were embalmed in them. Even Virgil held

"Soft wool, from downy groves, the Æthiop weaves,"†

but Mr. Thompson, of England, has forever closed the vexatious question, by subjecting the numerous specimens of this cloth to a powerful microscope. In no case has he discovered a single fibre of cotton in them.‡

The Latin and botanical word for this plant is *gossypium*. From the resemblance of its pod to a quince, *Cotoneum Malum*, the present name Cotton is derived.

The culture of cotton began first in the East. The Chinese produce largely, but also import from Surat and Bombay and other parts of India, and, what is remarkable, that although cotton was cultivated in gardens from remote antiquity in China, yet it was never turned to any account until the end of the thirteenth century. In central Africa the cotton plant abounds.

* According to Ulloa, in 1730, the value of an ox in Buenos Ayres, was 21½d 45c.

† Domestic Life and Manufactures of the Ancients.

‡ Later examinations have established that cotton, as well as wool, was used for mummy cloths. See Dr. Hawks' late work on Egypt.

When the Spaniards first landed in Mexico they found growing native, and in considerable perfection, this inestimable wool. There were neither wool, hemp nor silk, and the flax was not used for clothing. The modern Mexicans have lost the perfection of their ancient art of cotton manufacture. The plant was also found wild by Columbus, in Hispaniola. Most of the early American discoverers agree that cotton was one of the articles of dress among the American savages at the period of discovery. In 1726 cotton was a staple product of Hispaniola. In 1753 Jamaica exported 2000 bags; Barbadoes several hundred annually. In 1787 it was grown in eight or ten of the West India islands in small quantities.

One hundred and thirty years before the revolution it is said by Seabrook that the British endeavored to force its culture upon the planters of Virginia. In a description of Carolina, 1666, we learn the lands are capable of growing cotton wool. An account by Wilson, 1682, mentions its growth, from imported seed, in that province. Miss Lucas' note to her father, in 1739, mentions her efforts to bring cotton, etc., to perfection in Charleston. In 1736, on the shore of the Chesapeake cotton was raised as a garden plant, and 40 years after in the same way in Maryland, New Jersey and Delaware. When the American war broke out, General Delegal, of South Carolina, cultivated 30 acres green seed cotton near Savannah. Its production was recommended by the congress of Carolina in 1775,

Among the reports of the colonial office in Paris is one of 1760, showing the great advantages Louisiana might derive from the cotton culture—the difficulty of separating the seed from the wool—its introduction from St. Domingo—importance of introducing East India seed—machinery, &c.

Tench Coxe, Esq., of Philadelphia, stated in his book, 1786, that the people of this country, south of Annapolis, in Maryland, were not impressed with any belief of their capacity to produce cotton wool in any considerable quantity. Mr. Coxe had very different views.

The earliest exports of American cotton were from Charleston, in 1748, viz.:—seven bags of wool. In 1770 ten bales were shipped to Liverpool from the American colonies. That the increase was very slow we may infer from the doubt expressed in England, in 1784, whether all America produced so much as eight bales, and the course of Mr. Jay, in 1792, who regarded cotton so unimportant that he signed a treaty stipulating against its importation into Britain, for the advantage of the navigation laws of that country. Congress refused their assent to the treaty.

The exports of Cotton from the United States were in—

1785,—	14 bags.
1786,—	6 "
1787,—	109 "
1788,—	389 "
1789,—	842 "
1790,—	81 "

The accounts of exportation previous to 1790 are involved in much confusion. McCulloch states the country did not export a pound before that time. He does not give the average of importation into Great Britain higher than 40,000 bales per annum, previous to 1784, and in 1786 but 19,900,000 lbs., as follows:—

From British West Indies,	5,801,000
" French & Spanish Col.	5,500,000
" Dutch Col.	1,600,000
" Portuguese Col.	2,000,000
" Smyrna & Turkey,	5,000,000

19,900,000

or about 45,000 bags of present capacity. But as the English were the last European nation to take up the manufacture of cotton, the European consumption of cotton could not in any case have exceeded thirty-five million pounds in 1790, or about 60,000 bales. In that year Mr. Woodbury estimates the United States product as $\frac{1}{24\frac{1}{3}}$ part of the growth of the whole world.

Napoleon thought it possible to introduce the cotton culture into France, and employed Monsieur Lasteyrie to give instructions upon the subject.

All the varieties of herbaceous, hirsutum and arborescent cotton, are grown in the United States; the two former comprise the green seed, and the latter the sea island. Mr. Seabrook attributes the excellence of Louisiana cotton to a cross with the sea island.

The history of this last cotton is curious and interesting. The seed is black, and of Persian origin, though originally here from Bahama. It was first planted in Georgia 1786. It would appear that the soil adapted to it is very limited, chiefly the low sandy islands on the Carolina and Georgia coast, though it is claimed also for Florida. The first crop attempted to be raised was in 1788. In early times the product of this crop was most valuable. Mr. Seabrook paid for his plantation in two years! Some of the finest varieties of this cotton were sold by Mr. Burden in 1828 for \$2 a pound!

We have said sufficient of East India cottons. Those of South America are chiefly the Pernambuco, Maranhão, Bahia, Para, etc. The Pernambuco is best, and was long considered equal to sea island. The cotton of Smyrna is very inferior. That of Egypt is very fine, and the culture has been partially revived after it had almost been lost. Most of the West India cottons are long staple.*

SUGAR.—This crop is almost entirely confined to Louisiana, though a limited supply is obtained from Florida and Texas. Small patches of cane are cultivated in many of the southern states, and the maple sugar is no inconsiderable product of our yankee brethren.

The culture of sugar was recommended in the earliest days of Louisiana, and we are told by E. J. Forstall, Esq., that so soon as 1725-6 it was cultivated on the Jesuits' plantation, who introduced it in the then suburb St. Mary, now the most flourishing part of the city. Dr. Monette fixes the period of introduction 1751, though he is certainly too late. Mr. De Breuil in 1758 erected on his plantation, where now stands the third municipality, the first sugar mill. The enterprise being successful, others soon followed. The manufacture was very rude, and only suited home consumption. A ship-load was sent to France in 1765, but one half ran away in molasses. This was the first adventure.

* See previous volumes on cotton, and especially Vol. 1, April No.

In the hands of Spain, the sugar industry nearly perished in Louisiana, and was not revived until 1791, when the first sugar house was put up under this government. "Nobody," says Judge Rost "imagined that sugar could be made of the juice, and when Mr. Bore tried his experiment, hundreds from the city and coast assembled to witness. To use his own language 'but they remained outside of the building, at a respectable distance from the sugar maker, whom they regarded as a sort of magician. The second strike was out, the sugar maker (from the West Indies,) stirred carefully the first, and then advancing towards the assembled crowd, told them with all the gravity of his craft, 'it grains;' and from the Balize to the Dubuque, from the Wabash to the Yellow Stone, the great, the all absorbing news of the colony was, the juice of the cane had grained in Lower Louisiana.'""*

It is difficult to determine the sugar crop of Louisiana in the years between the American purchase and 1820. In 1818 it is stated at 25,000 hhds. It was not until 1822 that steam power was introduced by Messrs. Gordon & Forstall.

Until 1831 it was supposed Lower Louisiana was unfit for refining, and even so admitted by its Senators in Congress, but a shipment to the north at that time, which took the premium, decided the question.

Since this period, the culture and manufacture of sugar-cane have gone on advancing from year to year, and the most extraordinary improvements have been made in the agricultural, and by the march of chemistry in the manufacturing departments.

TOBACCO.—The history of tobacco is altogether modern. It is not quite three centuries since its first introduction into Europe from Mexico, or from Tobago in the West Indies, thus deriving its name, according to some. The American savages at the period of discovery, were in the habit of using it, and its smoke they conceived an acceptable burnt offering to the Great Spirit. We are all familiar with the strong opposition made to the use of this weed in its early history, by those in authority. It required more than King James' tobacco blast to check the growing demand, or Pope Urban's bull.

Tobacco was first cultivated by the colonists in Virginia in 1616, and by 1622 the product from the colony was 60,000. In an account of Carolina, 1680, it is said that tobacco of an excellent sort grew well, and sold from 5 to 8 shillings a pound, though as Virginia supplied the whole European demand, little was cultivated. It, therefore, does not appear according to Dr. Ramsay, among the exports of Carolina till 1783, and then only 643 hhds. The export by the close of the century reached as high as 10,000 hhds., but soon began to decline for the more profitable results in cotton, and is now nothing at all.

In 1639 the Assembly of Virginia ordered the whole crop of tobacco, exceeding 120,000 pounds, to be burnt. The report of commissioners in 1709 gives the export of the previous ten years, annually, 28,868,666 pounds, about 11,000,000 of which were consumed in Great Britain. By 1776, the annual export reached 40,000,000, of which but 7,000,000 were used in Britain. In 1775, the export of the colonies reached 101,828,617 pounds, of which 27,000,000 remained on hand, or were

*Ag. Address

consumed in Britain. During the revolution, the average export did not exceed 12,000,000 pounds, of which one half remained in England.

The average export of tobacco for the 21 years ending 1835, varies but slightly from the average export for the four years previous to the revolution. Thus, for a period of sixty years, it is observed by Mr. Johnson, the exportation of leaf tobacco has been stationary. For this state of things various reasons are assigned: chiefly, the enlarged production in Europe, and enormous tariffs levied upon the article there, &c. The American consumption in 1835 was estimated at 100,000,000, worth 20,000,000 dollars. It is impossible to state the growth of foreign countries, though in 1820 France alone produced 32,887,000, about one-third of the export of the United States the same year.

In the old States, the production of tobacco has declined greatly, and the product been transferred to the west. Even here the encouragement given to grain, and the withdrawal of labor to hemp, precludes the probability of larger production, whilst prices rule at anything like the present. The hopes of a larger foreign demand, now much increased since European stocks appear not to increase with larger exportation, showing increased use, and as foreign restrictions come to be removed, will cause a vast extension of this industry. Mr. Chapman, in a speech in Congress, 1847, remarks, an estimate was made by Mr. Dodge, an intelligent agent, sent by this government to different parts of Europe to examine into the state of the tobacco trade, by which he shows that 422,344 hhds. would be exported to Europe, and consumed there under a moderate rate of duties. Our late treaty with Hanover, it is supposed will open a much more extensive German market to this staple.*

These, though the most important of the articles of our agricultural trade, are by no means the most important of our industry. In the seven articles of barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, beans, peas, we raise annually \$140,000,000, making a reasonable advance upon the census returns of 1840. The value of the hay and straw crops, meaning by the last the blades of Indian corn, &c. alone, is estimated at \$180,000,000, or four times that of the cotton crop. We have in hemp and flax, \$17,000,000. The product of gardens is estimated at \$45,000,000; of the dairy, \$41,000,000. In the simple article eggs, \$5,186,200. Product of the forests, including lumber, furs and skins, \$21,000,000; in fire wood, \$37,000,000.†

*See Vol. II, Oct. No., for Tobacco Statistics.

†The census of 1850, which will be published next year, must embrace much more reliable information than that of 1840, from the pains which are being taken. We shall then have a correct statement of our products, and no doubt astound the world by their magnitude. The progress of no nation upon earth, in ancient or modern times, has shown such results. It is our intention to give in the Review a series of papers analyzing and discussing the various statistics of this census for the federal Union and the States.

ART. VI.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.

 TIERRA DE GUERRA.—BY J. M. LEGARE.

It was not long before the grey light crept down the side of the *barranca*, where we left our adventurers, and as soon as objects close at hand were distinguishable, the pair resumed their journey, being desirous of avoiding the observation of the Chaxul Indians. They found an indistinct path at the bottom of the *barranca*, and pursued it without hindrance other than that encountered in the rank tropical vegetation, until sunrise, when the termination of the chasm was reached, the ground having shown a gradual rise to the level above for a mile or more back. A dense forest now surrounded them on every side, from the interior of which were heard the screams of monkeys, gambolling among the tree-tops; everything else was still, and the light so obscured it was difficult to distinguish the trail which had evidently been long unused, and obliged them often to employ their machetes in clearing a passage through the vines and vigorous plants of a year's growth. After walking a mile, however, the wood became more open, and that they were approaching the neighborhood of one of the wild tribes was manifested by the junction of several well-worn paths branching out in various directions; our travellers chose the middle one, and had not proceeded far when the sounds of falling water and of voices simultaneously struck on their ears. A thicket intervened, stealing noiselessly up to which, they parted the branches, and saw a few yards off an old woman and girl, filling a couple of large callabashes from a spring; the path crossed this opening which was enclosed on all the other sides by a wall of shrubs and creepers, and drawing from their packs some gay ribbons, Eustace and Don Lucas quietly entered the glade. The girl, who was standing erect with the callabash poised on her shoulder, first caught sight of the strangers, and dashing the water down with a shriek, bounded towards the wood with the untamed grace of a deer; the *nah-attambil* (old woman) was equally alarmed at their appearance, but her retreat being less nimble, allowed Lucas time to adroitly catch her by throwing a double ribbon over her neck and retaining the ends.

"Why, what is the matter, *hach-nah*?" (mother) they said, "Are we *Ahuanchacob* (giants) or *u'nicob* (men)—look?"

Hearing herself spoken to in Maya, the withered hag ceased the hideous outcry she had raised, and stared at her captors with mouth agape; whereupon they hung a string of beads over each shoulder, and giving the ribbon another turn about her neck, released her from du-rance. She was highly pleased at this, and clutching her treasures mumbled something and set off after the *Ichoupal* (child) at a round trot; her new friends were not to be got rid of, however, and Lucas catching up the calabash she had left followed close at her heels. She had not far to go, for the girl, it seemed, finding she was not pursued—true to the instinct of her sex, whether in petticoats or out of them—was retracing her steps to get a peep at '*h-omonob* (the strangers) when they met her. Now that her first terror was past, and she perceived the

seemingly good understanding existing between all parties, a few beads and compliments in her language easily won her over, and by the time they had reached the open table-land, on which, in the midst of maize and tobacco stalks, were thirty or more huts, they were capital friends, and learned that all the men were gone to a *Napalhana* (great feast) at the next village. Quitting the crone, their younger guide led them into the town where they were speedily surrounded by a circle of women and children, who came running up from the more distant huts, but paused at a safe distance until the persuasions of their new ally overcame their fears; in pursuance of their scheme the strangers now opened their wicker packs, and soon provided themselves with abundance of provisions and tobacco leaves, if nothing else, in barter for finery. So far everything had gone smoothly and the comrades could not but congratulate themselves upon their success, while lying upon a *haazpoa* (palm leaf mat) under one of the sheds; but an unexpected change was at hand, for early in the afternoon Eustace was aroused by a rough shake, and starting up beheld on all sides the swarthy and by no means prepossessing faces of twenty or more savages. They all flourished wooden swords and spears, and certainly might have closed the sleepers' career if so inclined, before a pistol could have been drawn; a fancy which was busy in some of their brains, or their countenances very much belied them. Under any other circumstances, the surprised party, armed as they were, would have been a match for twice their number, but now keenly watched, they could only curse their recklessness and folly for the present inability to give battle if necessary; once Don Lucas slipped his hand into his breast to grasp a pistol, but a heavy blow on the arm and a few harsh words showed the intent was detected. After eyeing them awhile, with a scowl, the chief asked, in bad Spanish, what they did in his town, and who they were? To this—thinking by speaking in their own tongue a favorable impression might be made, and at all events all would understand—Eustace replied in Maya, "that they were traders wishing to get a cargo of *kutzé*, (tobacco) and narrated how they entered the village and passed the morning. No sooner, however, did they comprehend the latter part of the narrative, than quite a different effect was produced from that designed, and a tremendous uproar ensued; jealousy, the adventurers found to their cost, being a prominent foible in the characters of their ferocious friends. Fortunately for them the rush was so simultaneous and blind, several of those in front were thrown down, and both had time to leap to their feet before receiving any violent blows.

"Break through! make for the mountain!" cried Eustace, in English, shooting the chief, but the same instant himself prostrated. Don Lucas more lucky, succeeded in escaping, and flew along the *kutzé* patches as only a man can with certain death at his heels. Shoot! shoot! yelled the crowd in chase, to a lean savage in the lead, who held an arrow drawn to his eye ready to seize a chance as he ran; and down also tumbled the Spaniard, with the reed quivering in his ankle. At this success, the enemy set up a great shout, and the two prisoners were soon lying painfully bound and bloody from flesh wounds, in one of the close huts. Very little heart had they even for plotting an escape in their present helpless condition, and the heavy breathing of a slumber-

ing savage close to the door of their prison was audible in the stillness of the night. It was not easy to rest quietly under the circumstances, but the Spaniard contrived to lose all thought of the next day's probable horrors in sleep, his friend meanwhile keeping involuntary watch. The greater portion of the night has thus elapsed, when the attention of Eustace was attracted by a slight rustling in the thatch not far from the ground, and turning his face, with an effort in that direction, he distinguished an opening already made, which a hand of some one without each moment increased in diameter. Eustace was watching the progress

of the work with breathless interest, when a figure crept half way in, and to his relief, the voice of the girl who had guided them to the village, softly asked, "*Vene-tech, kinicych?*" (dost thou sleep, Faireyes?)*

"Heaven forbid!" cried Eustace; when without delay, she produced a sharp stone and began sawing apart the bark cords with which he was bound; this was soon accomplished sufficiently to allow him to complete the work, and the same service was performed for Don Lucas now also awake. While this was doing, she related that all the warriors, except the one at the door, had gone into the forest to see if any enemy were approaching, as they suspected the prisoners to be the spies of some such party; they would probably be back by morning, and would then kill them and make *hànal* (a dinner) of their bodies. "*Ex chichelem,*" (but you are too handsome for that,) she added, with vivacity, stroking down the face of the Saxon with her oily fingers. Her new friends entertained a similar opinion, and crawling through the opening with fresh hope, rose to their feet on the outside. "*Kuce!* see! see!" exclaimed the girl at the moment, with a faint cry, and quick gesture towards the corner of the hut, around which the guard was stealing, spear in hand. As soon as he saw himself detected, he charged, with a wild whoop, but a pistol shot from Don Lucas brought him sprawling at their feet mortally wounded; the report was exchoed and re-echoed by the woods around; and before it had died away, with a few hurried words of thanks, the fugitives were making for the hills as fast as the darkness permitted, and their guide flying to reach her shed. The forest was not far off, and once within its borders they felt themselves safe for the time, and paused to listen; the town was in an uproar, the screams and cries of women and children arising from every part, but no shouting, which confirmed the girl's statement of the absence of the men. After taking breath the comrades felt their way along, through the pitchy darkness, but after an hour's struggling and creeping, in which they advanced not more than a hundred yards, agreed that it would be better to reserve their strength until it could be employed to more advantage, and await the dawn where they were; accordingly, they climbed into a tree near at hand, and sat, with ears open to the slightest alarm; everything was, however, again perfectly still, save that at intervals, a faint wailing arose from the direction of the village, indicating that the corpse had been found.

* The grey eyes of the Saxon race, always objects of special note, furnishing a nick-name among the unvarying black of the Indian or even half-caste Spanish tribes of Tropical America.

At last a dim light penetrated the roof of branches, and sliding down, the adventurers forced a way through the dense undergrowth, and struck into a path, by good fortune not twenty yards distant; for fear of encountering any of the natives, however, as they were ignorant of the position of their settlements, they did not long continue in the trail, but ascending a hill less closely wooded than the plain, to their great joy found themselves at the very foot of the Sierra, which towered directly over head many thousand feet high. There was a narrow barranca in front, and descending into this they halted to examine their arms; their machètes were gone, but none of the pistols missing with the exception of the one with which Eustace had shot the chief, at the moment of being struck down—the haste of the natives to set out probably interfering with an immediate search of the prisoners. Those that had been discharged they reloaded, and glancing up at the rocky peaks, among which they hoped to find a gap affording access to the valley beyond, commenced their laborious ascent.

Scrambling up several steep acclivities they again fell into a path which wound upwards as far as could be seen along the side of the mountains, and this time they determined to follow it, as Don Lucas' foot had begun to swell and prove exceedingly painful, the wound being much irritated by the effort of climbing. The ascent was rapid and often abrupt, a few holes in the smooth rock serving as steps to scale a precipice, and from the summit of one of these last, their great elevation was shown by a partial view of three separate villages of the wild tribes on the table lands far below. All vegetation had now ceased, and on every side were enormous masses of gritty stone, piled one on the other in desolate grandeur, in the midst of which appeared yawning chasms, and rugged channels worn by torrents during the rainy season; the path was no longer distinguishable, but as they had traced it to the foot of the dry water-course up which they were toiling over loose pebbles, the climbers entertained no doubt of their being still in the route pursued by pedestrians in the habit of passing that way, whoever they were; and as it was a most unlikely thing that any one would climb to this height to descend *on the same side*, conjectured they could not be far from the gap they sought. Whenever they halted to rest, who and what the strange people were, among whom, it was probable, before night they would find themselves, furnished an absorbing topic of conversation, but neither looked to encounter any human beings for some hours at least. Meanwhile, as they clambered higher, the difficulty of advancing increased, and Eustace was debating whether it was not possible they had overlooked the true continuation of the path at first followed, when Don Lucas, who had turned the shoulder of a jutting rock in front, suddenly uttered a suppressed exclamation: the other was quickly at his side, and holding fast to a natural parapet over which they leaned with the caution requisite on the brink of a sheer precipice a thousand feet deep, beheld a scene not readily forgotten. The same narrow plain seen from the neighborhood of Chaxul, lay spread out before them, and numerous edifices, white and glistening in the sunshine, were discernable many leagues away. But their eyes had scarcely glanced over the distant objects, when they were caught and detained by the spectacle immediately beneath; the inner range of Sierra which, facing the chasm near

Chaxul, rises to so great a height as to cut off all but the remote view, in this place sank to less than a hundred feet in altitude, and was removed a mile or so from the base of the precipice, the intervening space being occupied by a valley elevated above the level of the plain beyond, and consequently nearer to them. As far as could be seen on each side the surface of this table was covered with stone houses, both large and small, pyramids, some quite isolated, and others, as one opposite, partly hewn out of the native rock and partly constructed of massive blocks; the hum of a dense population arose from beneath, and men, women and children were distinctly to be seen going from place to place, some with burdens on their backs, others laboring in the gardens, and others again basking in the sun, hot as it was, on the flat roofs of the houses or steps of the teocallis. Occasionally a figure of apparently gigantic proportions, or one cased in some glittering material, passed along, and the direction these invariably took towards the base of the steep, excited the curiosity of the gazers to discover the cause; stretching still farther over to accomplish this, they were startled to perceive, on a platform of rock some forty feet below, which intercepted a view of what was under, a group of warriors armed with spears, clubs and bows, and gaily adorned with feathers. The pair of adventurers had only time to observe thus much, when an outcry from the valley drew their gaze into that quarter again, and by the number of hands pointing aloft, shouts and running together, they perceived their presence was detected, and the more distant were endeavoring to direct the eyes of those closest to their position. They had barely taken the hint and withdrawn their heads, when a flight of arrows, from the occupants of the platform, swept the brink of the ledge, quivered high in air, and descending, rattled like a shower of hail on the rock behind; the whizzing of these missiles so close to their ears, was not the most agreeable sound, and as their reception seemed likely to be more stormy than had been anticipated, they thought it better to take up a more sheltered position. With this object in view, Don Lucas, followed by Eustace, crept along the parapet toward the right and entered a cleft between two walls of bare rock. As this was a bad place to be caught in, they pushed on with what speed they might until the pass became more open and shallow, when they saw the crags surmounted on a sudden by a dozen armed men, some in armor of brass links, and others protected by wadded cuirasses of a brown stuff, which gave them the bulky appearance observed twice before. Several of these carried spears, which they balanced in act to throw, as they came leaping down from ledge to ledge, but the greater part shook hollow clubs violently overhead with a loud rattling noise. Don Lucas, whose Spanish blood was up, stood firm, pistol in hand, his dilated eye running from one to the other, undecided which to sacrifice where the claims of each were so equal, and deaf to the other's rapid and prudent expostulation, in an instant brought one of the attacking party tumbling and bloody down the steep. Eustace now drew his own pistols, resolved at all events to sell life dearly, a spear having prostrated his rash comrade, and two others wounding himself slightly in the left arm and leg; but at the instant found himself entangled in a net falling from above, the cord of which being dexterously drawn, he was thrown with stunning violence on the rocks, completely pinioned. His weapons were quickly removed,

and bound securely, he was forced to climb after his captors in the best manner practicable, a thrust from the butt end of a spear serving to restore his equilibrium when in danger of falling backward. Don Lucas, who showed no sign of life, was dragged roughly along by the arms. The party crossed the opposite ridge, and immediately entered a chasm in the side of which a narrow flight of steps had been hewn, and from this spot the whole plain once more lay open to view; the steps were frequently exchanged for a steep zig-zag path, and this again would terminate in a precipitous stone ladder, so there was little monotony in the route. The last flight of steps was broad and massive, and communicated also with the terrace upon which the prisoners had gazed from above, and this, as well as the whole space immediately adjacent, was thronged by an excited populace, who regarded the former with ferocious countenances, while their escort forced a passage through their midst, crossing in front of their late elevated perch among the crags.

ART. VII.—ANNEXATION OF CANADA.

THE ANNEXATION OF CANADA.—VIEWS OF VARIOUS CANADIAN, AMERICAN AND ENGLISH JOURNALS.—LITTEL'S LIVING AGE, ETC., ETC.

The subject of the annexation of Canada to the United States, is beginning to assume a shape of importance, if we may judge from the discussions which are now going on in the province, the mother country, and the northern section of this confederacy. Has the South no interest in the issue, that she seems to be asleep at her post? Whether she opposes, or is in favor of the annexation of Canada, should not the voice of her press be heard disseminating light and information upon the subject? Should we not at least inquire into the motives of the parties who favor this new annexation? The South certainly has an interest at stake as great as, possibly greater than Canada, the North, or Great Britain. Most assuredly, then, she should not wait until public opinion (even within her own borders) is moulded by the voice of a triply combined provincial, British, and northern press, whose interests may be antagonistic to her own. For ourself, it is not our intention in this article, to either favor or oppose the annexation of Canada. We are disposed, however, to contribute our little mite to awaken attention to the importance of the question now being agitated in other sections, in regard to this subject. It is the duty of a free people to be forever on the alert with regard to any important political act of the government under which they live. No act can be more important than the extension of territory.

Does Canada herself desire annexation, is a question which first presents itself to our minds. We believe, from the light before us, and from the tone of the press of both political parties in that province, that a large majority of her citizens, of whatever political creed, desire it as

an object dearest to their hearts. There has long been a party among the French inhabitants of the province, called the Papineau party, who have all the while been friendly to the project of Canada's becoming one of the United States. Their zeal in the cause continues unabated; but, in addition to this class, there is another party among the French who favor the present government, and who are called the La Fontaine party, as being supporters of the prime minister, whose name they bear, who go for annexation. M. Duvernay, editor of the *Minerve* newspaper, which is the organ of the French party supporting the present government, has long been the confidential friend and faithful ally of the prime minister, La Fontaine. He has recently come out in a leading editorial, which bears the marks, as is asserted by the correspondent of the English paper, the *Spectator*, of "deliberate and careful preparation." The first thing which he does, is to taunt the *Montreal Herald* and the Canadian Tories generally, for being advocates of annexation.—He seems to exult in the fact that the party formerly most friendly to Great Britain, and the bitterest enemies of the independence of Canada, have now wheeled right-about face, and are favoring more strenuously than the former friends of liberty, a disenthralment from the British yoke.

After this, he goes on to say plainly, that he himself favors annexation, giving good and cogent reasons why he believes it would be the best thing for the province. He winds up by citing the letter which General Scott published some time ago, in which he declares himself in favor of annexation; says he believes it will be consummated with the consent of Great Britain, and asserts it beneficial to all parties.

The publication of Mr. Duvernay's editorial is regarded as a most pregnant fact in Canada, containing as it does, the principles avowed by him. His paper is considered the mouth-piece of four-fifths, at least, of the French population. In addition to this, his journal is, as already stated, the organ of the La Fontaine government and its adherents. The consequence is, that this fact gives M. Duvernay's views the appearance and importance of semi-official statements. All look upon the prime minister and his party as pledged to annexation.

The correspondent of the *Spectator* thinks that the La Fontaine party are annexationists, because they are compelled to be so by the tide of popular opinion. He says, "the tide has set in for annexation, and the La Fontaine party is unwilling to be left behind it." The truth is, there has been a remarkable change in parties in Canada within the last few years. During the revolution of 1837, one party bore the names of Rebels, and the other that of loyalists. Previous to that event, the British party held all the power in their own hands. The French were looked upon as a mean, inferior race, incapable of holding any office, or bearing any part in the government. Their British oppressors looked down upon them with contempt, and had done so from the time that Canada passed into the hands of England, with the surrender of Quebec. Instead of being considered a portion of the British government, they were looked down upon as vassals and slaves. The British inhabitants regarded them as a conquered, surrendered enemy, whom they were sent to watch over and guard. Then the fanaticism of a bigoted, ignorant religion came in to lend its acerbity to the feuds between the two fac-

tions. The French party regarded the British inhabitants as a set of heretics worthy of the guillotine and the stake, while the English looked upon the French as an ignorant, bigoted, priest-ridden faction, behind the spirit of the age, with its masses and its purgatories. The contest of Saxon and Celt was as bitter as it was in the days when William and his Norman followers set their conquering feet upon the shores of Albion. At length the fires which had long smouldered beneath the fear of the British lion, showed symptoms of breaking out into a blaze. The French party, long galled and chafed beneath the curb and spur of their British riders, came to the conclusion that confiscation, and death itself, were risks which might well be run in a cast of the die for liberty. The revolution of 1837 was the result.

In that contest the French were called the Rebels, and the English the Loyalists. It soon became apparent that the former party had calculated without its host, and the rebellion was soon put down. But it was not without its fruits for good to the French party. Upon the advice of the Earl of Durham and the Earl of Gosford, the Canadian viceroys, the English government showed itself sagacious enough to change its policy towards its rebellious colony. Easy at home, notwithstanding the oppressions towards a conquered people to whom leniency and protection were due, it forgot its obligations until taught that even the Frenchman has some rights which he will not quietly allow to be violated. The immense cost of suppressing the rebellion compared with the value of the colony, and the fear that oppression would drive Canada to the arms of the United States, wrung from her unwilling hands the dues and the rights which she would, under the circumstances, long have retained in clenched fists. The result was, that Upper and Lower Canada, hitherto distinct provinces, were united into one, under one legislature, in which the Frenchman, as well as the Englishman, exercised the right of representation. What followed showed the justice of the French cause, and the injustice of that of the British.

After the salutary measures adopted by the English government, in regard to Canadian politics, had gone into effect, the voice of rebellion was heard no more throughout the land. All that the Frenchman wanted was anything like a fair exercise of his rights. He got more than he wanted—certainly more than he expected. Grateful for the favor extended towards him, after he had fought for it, he became, from that time, satisfied and loyal, whereas heretofore he had been discontented and rebellious.

Just the reverse was the consequence with the Englishman. Accustomed to consider himself the superior of the Frenchman, he could not bear to see him elevated to the same position as himself—meeting him as an equal in the council hall and the legislative chamber—rendering his ballot a nullity by casting another in opposition to it. From being satisfied and loyal, he became discontented and tinged with disloyalty. While he was the oppressor, he was willing enough to see the foot of the tyrant upon the neck of Canada. Since he can no longer exercise the high prerogative of oppressing his fellow man, he becomes enraged with his government, across the waters, and threatens it with annexation—as if Uncle Sam would restore him his fallen sceptre any more than his father John Bull does. But no matter for that; the English-

man's desire of revenge will induce him to favor annexation, although he knows that he will not gain thereby the inestimable privilege of oppressing Frenchmen.

The French party has been gaining power and influence ever since the union of the two provinces, until it is now in the ascendancy. The British party from that time has become more and more dissatisfied, until it is now almost entirely disloyal. The "rebellion-losses" bill, by which they imagine that the French rebels are too much favored, and their own importance too much underrated, has but served to increase their dissatisfaction. They very naturally ask themselves what they gained by being loyal, when they have lost their influence in favor of the French party; and when, after the lapse of ten or more years, their pockets are laid under contribution to reward the rebels for their acts of 1837. It is intolerable—and their cry is for annexation. Not that they have lost respect for a monarchical form of government, or are in love with republics, but because the British government has lowered their importance, and revenge dictates to them the course they are pursuing. We are sustained in these views by a passage in the letter of the *Spectator's* correspondent to whom we have already alluded, and whom the tenor of his letter shows to belong to the British party.

"Though I have hated," says this correspondent, *"the thought of becoming an American Republican, sure I am that this fate awaits us all in Canada; and I can only wonder at the ease and rapidity with which Canadians of all parties and classes are falling into the belief that annexation alone can set us to rights; that it will mend the fortune of every colonist; and that, instead of being an evil, it will prove a comfort and a blessing. Relief from pain is said to be the greatest pleasure; this is what the whole colony is longing for, and will, I believe, soon obtain by the only means now possible,"* [that is annexation.]

Horrible "fate" indeed! the "thought of becoming an American Republican!" Nevertheless, the British party will become so, if by this means they can be revenged for being deprived of what they consider their birth-right—bullying Frenchmen. This same correspondent, as a representative of the British party, is not willing to allow the French party sincerity in being annexationists, but contends that they are compelled to be so by popular opinion, in order not to be left behind. The French might retort, by asking him how long he and his party had been favorers of Canadian independence, just as the Minerva taunts the tory Herald for supporting annexation. Compelled by public opinion, indeed! and when the French are in the ascendancy and control popular opinion!

That the French party in Canada is in favor of annexation has been shown from the position of the Minerva. That the British party is in favor of it has also been shown. We will give a few extracts from some of the English and Canadian papers, to show the nature and spirit of the resistance by this party to the government across the waters, and their desire for annexation. The *Spectator* of May 26th, says,—

"The news from Canada is very unsatisfactory; and the private accounts are still darker than the published. Lord Elgin steadily perseveres in his course, and the governor-general has succeeded in becoming the cocksby-general for the ultra "loyal" party. As the "rebellion-losses bill" comes to be regarded as an irrecoverable act, the question of "annexation" revives—with threats among some, with alarm among others; but still it is again talked of."

The Montreal Courier, a Tory paper, has not as yet, we believe, begun to favor openly and boldly the cause of annexation. Yet it has been publishing a series of very able papers, which indirectly favor a union with the United States. The writer endeavors to show that the Constitution of Great Britain has in reality approached nearer a practical working in the American Confederacy than in Canada. He has adopted the principle that "all power rests with, and emanates from the people." He then goes on to show how much superior the government of the United States is, to secure the interests of the people, to that of Canada. After noticing some objections, by Paley, to a Republican form of government, speaking of our political system, he thus proceeds:—

"Nearly three-quarters of a century have since elapsed, and the "experiment" has become a great fact—a settled reality. The experience of each succeeding year is only realizing what Paley so clearly foreshadowed as the possible result of such a system—namely, *the highest security combined with the most ample liberty, as well as a capacity for extension.* From thirteen states, which originally constituted the confederacy, the number has already reached thirty. The Union, no doubt, might, with advantage to the whole, be increased to fifty or sixty. The larger the number, the less risk would the Federal Government incur from the "dissensions and jealousies referred to by Paley, as likely to arise amongst individual states."

Our writer next goes on to notice the leading provisions in the American Constitution—particularly those concerning its amendment, its guarantying republican forms of government to the states, and the powers of these states themselves over their own legislation, under the constitution. He then goes on to say:—

"The Canadas, therefore, might be admitted as states, without any change, if the people so willed it, than the election of a governor. The power of appointing judges, and other officers, might, as at present, and as in the case of the federal, and many of the state governments, still continue in the executive. The elective franchise might also, as in South Carolina, and some other states, be based upon a property qualification, or upon the payment of a certain amount of taxes to the state. If these principles were adhered to, the transition would be attended with no great organic changes calculated to shock the feelings or unsettle the minds of men. The legislative assembly might, as at present, be elected for four, and the legislative council for six years; and to give the latter greater stability to resist popular influences of a dangerous nature, as well as to keep in it experienced men, a third of its members might retire every two years, by rotation, as in the case of the federal senate.

"With such well defined privileges and powers guarantied to us, all the bugbears which the fertile imaginations of interested or bigoted politicians of all parties have conjured up about perpetual election and universal suffrage, would vanish into thin air.

"As an immediate consequence of our admission into the Union would follow a settled state of public mind. All men would at once feel that we had taken our place amongst the nations—that we had, in fact, reached the full stature of manhood, where the energies rapidly develop themselves. The bitterness and virulence of internal dissensions would suddenly be forgotten with the return of prosperity. Our new position would soon foster into existence a national feeling and pride that would direct our energies as a people, and lead to the successful prosecution of numerous public enterprises, and particularly of railways, necessary to the full enjoyment of those advantages which nature and providence have so liberally bestowed upon our common country."

There has been a paper established in Montreal, whose special object is to favor annexation. Its prospectus first appeared in the Courier,

from which the above extracts are taken. The *Montreal Herald*, another prominent Tory paper, holds this language in regard to annexation. After going on to enumerate the advantages of a union with America, it continues:—

“Thus, whether rightly or wrongly, it is incontestable that the great majority of those among us who think independently, are looking forward to annexation as the relief from many of our political difficulties, and the high road to prosperity. Men who have differed most widely, and who perhaps will continue to differ on all other questions, even after annexation shall have taken place, agree at this moment in desiring annexation as the most advantageous movement that we can adopt. But while the feeling for annexation is strong, there is as strong a desire that nothing should be done by violence; and that if England will cast off her children, they may yet never be found in arms against her. Hence the importance of the question: “Will the British government oppose annexation?”

This important question we shall discuss presently. We will barely remark here that this and the foregoing extract are strange language for Tory papers, when compared with their former opinions. But the cause of the change in those opinions we have already pointed out.—A correspondent of the *New-York Tribune*, a Tory—the correspondent we mean, of course, and not the *Tribune*—writing from Kingston concerning the convention which agreed unanimously to adopt the federative Union of the British North American Provinces as one of the measures which it would recommend to the people of the province, [Upper Canada,] says:—

“In truth, the great defect of the federative scheme lies in this, that whatever advantage it promises to afford, only suggests how much greater would be the same advantage if gained by annexation to the United States. No man can shut his eyes to that; while it would equally entail upon us the expenses of a federal government, which is the great economical objection to a union with you. The only thing we should save by federation, as compared to annexation, would be our British feelings. These are doubtless strong, but they grow weaker daily, when they are in direct opposition to our desire for the material prosperity of ourselves and our children.”

The correspondent of the *Spectator* says, among many other things,—

“All the English newspapers in Lower Canada are now, more or less, the advocates of annexation. In Upper Canada, annexation is the fashionable doctrine. Throughout the province, even amongst the very few who are now sincerely attached to the British connection, annexation to the United States is felt and admitted to be the only probable, and above all, the only effectual solution of our troubles and difficulties.”

Why does Canada desire annexation? is the second question which presents itself to our minds. We have already shown one of the main reasons why the British party in that province desire it. It has seen that the French party has been put on an equal footing with itself, and, starting from the same point with itself, is already outstripping it in the race for political power and influence. To take revenge upon the government of Great Britain for such a policy as has brought about this state of things, it is willing to see Canada annexed to the United States. Perhaps it thinks it can frighten the mother country into an acquiescence of its wishes by making the threat of annexation.

We know that annexation of Canada to the United States would not give the British Canadians the same ascendancy over the French which they formerly possessed. But it would do this much. It would enable them to separate themselves entirely from a class so obnoxious to them, by their remaining in the State of Upper Canada, while the French would remain in Lower Canada, for there would be two states made of the Province in case of annexation. This might not entirely satisfy the British Canadians, but they would prefer separation as an American State, to being in a minority in a British Province, with the French in the ascendant. The design of the British party against the French is made evident by the following extract from the *Spectator* of August 25th.

"The advices from the British dependencies are not hopeful for the permanence of tranquillity and concord. In Canada the British League has completed its session, and has sent home its manifesto, the sum of which is, that the "British" party in Canada regretfully hankers after commercial protection in the tariff of the English customs, and, to counteract the "factious" operations of the French Canadians, desires a confederation of the Provinces in British America."

This British League, spoken of above by the *Spectator*, is the same convention written about by the Kingston correspondent of the *Tribune*. Indeed, this correspondent himself says, after stating one object of the British League—

"In addition to which they hope to put the French Canadians under their feet, and they, therefore, always connect the federation of the provinces with some new territorial division, which shall withdraw the island of Montreal and other parts of Lower Canada, where the British have a footing, from French influences, and unite them to Upper Canada, or part of Upper Canada, for the purpose of forming one state of the Federation."

The great desire of the British party seems to be to "counteract" the "factious" operations of the French Canadians—"to put them under their feet," and to "withdraw the Island of Montreal and other parts of Lower Canada where the British have a footing from French influence." To this end they have formed a British League against the poor French, and propose a Federation of all the British North American Provinces. Failing, this project, which they no doubt prefer, the men who lead in Canada—that is amongst the British party—would unite that province with our government—not, as we have already shown, because they love republicanism so much—for some of them "hate" the "fate" of becoming "American Republicans,"—but because they would do anything to get rid of "French influences."

We have shown the main reason why the British party desires annexation. It now remains for us to show the principal cause of the coincidence of French wishes with those of the opposite party. We have already spoken of the semi-officially expressed designs of the La Fontaine dynasty in regard to union with the American states. The correspondent of the *Examiner* leaves no doubt as to the opinions of that party. They earnestly desire annexation. And why is it that this party which has been so loyal since they have been allowed an equal share in the government, now so eager for Canada to become one

of the United States? We believe their main object is to avoid the ulterior designs aimed at by their opponents against them. They know that so long as the other provinces will not join Upper Canada in its crusade against them, they can maintain their position and influence. But when they see Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the balance, joining their opponent in a British league, to counteract all their operations, to put them under their feet, and to wrest from them the island of Montreal, and despoil them of the other most valuable portions of their territory, they remember what they were previous to the revolution of '37, and begin to fear that the Celt will descend from his position as the equal of the Anglo-Saxon, and again become the slave of his haughty tyranny. Hence although perfectly satisfied with the present state of things, could they be guaranteed a continuance of them—although very loyal so long as they can be allowed a participation in the affairs of state, they fear that a change disastrous to their interests will come unless something is done to ward it off. In annexation they look for a security against the impending evils. Hence they agree with the British party in their cry for union with America, when the motives of the two factions are as diverse as the poles. The Englishman wishes to lord it over the Frenchman. The government across the Atlantic, made wise by the revolution of '37, will not allow him to do so. In a fit of rage with Victoria and her parliament, he endeavors to bully the privilege of being biggest out of them by threats of annexation. The Frenchman, very well satisfied with the Queen and supreme legislature, nevertheless fears that they may be induced to grant the Canadian Englishman his request, and, to prevent this, joins in with his opponent in the wish that Canada shall become a member of our confederacy.

In addition to this, we very readily believe, that the French party are, some of them at least, really anxious for the independence of their country. We would much sooner believe that they had become enamored of republicanism than that the British party had. They were the revolutionists of 1837, and although they were driven to be such by intolerable tyranny, and probably would never have rebelled had they been treated with justice, yet we can well imagine that upon comparing their own government with ours, they see that our system is better calculated to promote their permanent interests than their own. It would be doing them injustice to believe that the spirit of the age, which calls so loudly for republics, addressed a deaf ear when it spoke to them. Their sympathies are with the mother country, and when they see France desiring a democracy, although she may not be able to secure one, all their sympathies are aroused in favor of that form of government. When we remember too that they are remote from the central influence of thrones and monarchies, and in close approximation with the grand republic whose moral influence is next to omnipotent in favor of freedom, we must believe that they are, to some extent, convinced of the good (to them) of annexation, independent of the opposition to them of the British party.

Thus it is that the conflicting parties have each a peculiar and special object in favoring annexation. In addition to these there are other motives common to both. They are found in the commercial and other national advantages attendant upon being a member of the American

Union. These advantages are thus summed up by the Montreal Herald, the tory paper from which we have already quoted. Its indirect manner of supporting annexation has already been mentioned. It does not profess to advance the following views as its own; but, speaking of those who favor the annexation project, it proceeds:—

"This measure, they say, would give the Americans the free use of our river, so that our wharves would be crowded with their craft; while it would, at the same time, afford our ship-owners reciprocal advantages in American waters, without the delay and conditions, and uncertainty of long-drawn-out diplomacy and nicely-balanced treaties, made on our side by negotiators from Great Britain, unacquainted with the geography of the country or the trade of the people.

"This measure would give an interest in our undertakings to American capitalists, who may see and judge for themselves, at the end of a two days' voyage from the principal seats of monetary operations, and so release us from a weary attendance upon British speculators, ignorant of our resources and incredulous as to our good faith. It would increase the facilities and the objects of that trade with the far west, which is just opening; it would secure to us permanently all the good hoped from the reciprocity laws, which we have vainly attempted to obtain from the Congress at Washington; it would reconcile the conflicting notions of the free-traders and protectionists, since it would remove the barriers to our commerce with our neighbors, while it would afford to our manufacturers the benefit of a protective tariff. It would, in short, people our cities; convert our water-falls into motive powers; and equalize the price of land, now nearly 100 per cent. higher, in latitude 45 deg. 1 min., south, than in 45 deg. 1 min., north.

From various other sources besides the above, we learn that the desire of a protective tariff to her manufactures is one of the reasons why Canada wishes annexation. Even should she ever become incorporated into the American Union she will find her protective notions will meet with a sad reversal. The spirit of restriction and the spirit of republicanism are diametrically opposite. The building up of the latter must be at the expense of the rasure to its foundation of the former. The sickly, temporary growth of "protection" (which was reared on the hot-bed of Federalism in America) is fast withering beneath the rising sun of enlightenment and equal rights. Canada need not expect that the protective policy which has been the builder of thrones upon the ruins of liberty in monarchical Europe will be cherished in our great republic for the benefit of her manufactures, should she be so fortunate as to be admitted into our confederacy. The Vandalic system of flinching from the pocket of the laborer his scanty wages to line with fatness the coffers of the nabobs of wealth is fast passing away, since the general diffusion of intelligence points out to the man of the sweaty brow, the wrong imposed upon him, and teaches him that he has the right inherited from high heaven to resist the oppression which grinds him in the dust.

It seems from what is before us that all parties in Canada, though for different motives, desire annexation. Now the next question is, do the United States desire it? The Northern portion of the American Union has generally heretofore opposed the acquisition of territory. The Southern portion has generally been the instrument of the extension of our flag, from the everglade in Florida to the gold placer of the Sacramento. The Northern and Southern wings of the two great national parties have not usually plumed their pinion in unison upon the subject of getting more land, either for or against. It is a question whether

this will be the case with regard to Canada. Many of the Northern papers seem to be favorable to the annexation of the province just beyond the St. Lawrence. Especially is this the case with the New-York "Tribune" and "Courier and Enquirer," the two master-spirits of the Northern press. The New-York "Evening Post," which speaks as well the sentiments of the Free-soilers as any other paper, seems to be favorable to Canada's union with the United States. Why is it that a party, or that parties, so generally opposed to acquisitions of territory now seem to favor it?

There are several reasons for this. The Abolition party proper, is willing to do anything which will give them the ascendant in our national councils. There is a kind of giant mania gotten hold of them by the hand, which influences their walk wherever they go. Utterly regardless of every other consideration, they are going forth armed with the club of Hercules to crush that, (to them,) many-headed monster, yclept Slavery. If they are candidates for seats in the national Congress, they infuriate their constituents with double-distilled fanaticism, upon a subject of which they are as ignorant as they are of the cogitations of the man in the moon, and call upon them to break off the manacles of the negro who is, to all intents and purposes, a greater participant of the blessings of life than a majority of the people of the world who are of the same color, as those whom they address. Do they go to church on the Sabbath? They go up to worship with their hearts aching, and their faces gloomed, over the cruelty exercised towards the black man of the South, and call down the avenging wrath of heaven upon the heads of those who hold the scourge, when master and servant are at that time both worshipping the God of their fathers under the same roof. Do you tell them that the bible allows of slavery? Away with your bible, say they; and straightway they unfurl the black banner of atheism, and invite those who cannot get over the permission of the bible to hold slaves, in any other way, to rally around the standard of infidelity. Do you tell them that the constitution of the United States gives Congress no power over the subject of slavery? Their answer is, tear the great charter itself into shreds, light the torch of civil war, place the battle-axe in the hand of rebellion, burn down the temple of our government, and murder woman and her infant in the bed of repose, turned into the bed of death. Do you still tell them that the black race of the South are not prepared for their liberty, and that they are in a very good condition and are happy? They show you pictures of the naked, manacled slave upon his knees, with the scourge raised above him, and the blood trickling down his back. They tell you of dungeon walls, handcuffs, chains, and all the infernal enginery of torture and the rack, and such other things as exist but in their own crazed imaginations. These, of course, will go for annexation, if for nothing else under heaven, but they may obtain an ascendancy in the halls of Congress. It matters not whether there is any probability of their profiting by this ascendancy or not. They must have the ascendancy, and have it they will, think they, if they have to move heaven and earth to attain it.

But in addition to the abolition party proper, there is a portion at least of the Northern Whig party and Democratic party, who are very bitter against the institution of slavery. The Tribune and Evening Post—one

a Whig and the other a Democratic paper—are good representatives of this class. These do not claim for the Federal government any power over slavery in the States, but contend, in common with many others, that Congress can control the institution in the territories. The object dearest to their hearts, (perhaps after a restriction of commerce and a corruption bank,) is to prevent the extension of slavery. Although they know that they could not, even if they had a majority in Congress, pass a statute by which the direct abolition of slavery would take place, yet they hope that by obtaining such a majority, they may be enabled to restrict slavery to its present limits, and then pursue such a system of legislation as will force emancipation upon the States themselves. Possibly they wish to obtain such a majority as will enable them to so remodel the constitution as to prohibit slavery. Even if this is not the case, they hope to get into the ascendancy so that they may prohibit, or attempt to prohibit, the slave traffic between the States, and pass a law for immediate abolition in the District. These two projects are their darling favorites. If they can succeed in these attempts they will endeavor by protective tariffs, &c., to make valueless the labor of the slave, and compel his master to set him free. Then, too, the very love of the Northern States for restriction upon commerce will induce them to extend the right hand of fellowship to the Canadians, so clamorous for protection. Every additional free State, and protective tariff State will add to them several members in Congress; and for this reason the Northern States whose opposition was thundered against John Tyler and Mr. Polk, for acquiring Texas and the Mexican provinces which would increase, they said, the area of slavery, will now probably be found the warmest advocates for the annexation of Canada.

The inquiry now comes up, what will the South do in regard to annexation? Her newspapers and her people have not yet spoken out upon the subject. If she sees that the North is bent upon the union of Canada with the States for abolition purposes, and for those alone, she will oppose the project to a man. Although she may know that her right to hold slaves is derived from her State sovereignty, and that she will resist by force of arms, if necessary, any encroachment upon her rights and immunities by an abolition majority, yet she will feel bound to do all she can to stave off the acquisition of such a majority by the annexation of free territory, or any other means. If, however, several new States be formed from the free territories already belonging to us, and admitted into the Union, and they and the North declare their intention to annex Canada for abolition purposes, and actually do unite her with our confederacy—even then the South will remain loyal to the Union until the majority transcends the constitution, either by assuming powers not granted them, or by changing the compact, so as to render it null and void. After this, party lines will be broken down at the South—the voice of dissension will be hushed within her borders, and any encroachment upon her rights will be met by the thunders of war, and thousands of swords will leap from their scabbards, gleaming fiercely upon the field of her honor.

Aside from slavery and protection, we believe that a majority of the American people would be in favor of the annexation of Canada. At the same time we doubt very much whether the parties which now

probably favor this project in consideration of these two things, would support the measure were it not for the sake of these causes. It must be a source of pleasure to every American patriot, under ordinary circumstances, to see the flag of his country unfurling its ample folds over every state that will come under its protection, and securing to its inhabitants the blessings and advantages of a republican form of government. The greater the number of states united under our confederacy, the more prosperous probably will be the whole union, and the better will be secured the great national objects of prosperity in peace, and strength in war. Commerce, manufactures, the mechanic arts, &c., will flourish in proportion to the number of persons and the amount of capital and resources employed in them.

Canada is not destitute of resources for commerce and manufactures, nor of the elements which go to make up a prosperous state. In Upper Canada the inhabitants possess the advantages of a healthy and salubrious climate and a fertile soil. It yields an abundant and luxuriant crop of grain, such as wheat, indian corn, &c. Flax is also produced, and in the South-western districts tobacco may be grown to advantage. To ship its productions, Upper Canada has the benefit of the St. Lawrence, and some other navigable streams, together with the great lakes, and the canals of Rideau and Welland. The first unites the Ottawa river with the Kingston, and the second extends from lake Erie to Ontario. They are both navigable for vessels of a hundred and twenty-five tons. Toronto and Kingston are both flourishing commercial towns, and have fine harbors continually whitened by the canvass of numerous water-craft engaged in trade. Although some portions of Lower Canada are rugged, cold and sterile, others are fertile, well watered, and more moderate in temperature, and produce the same articles of grain which the upper province does. Grain, flour, lumber, furs and pot and pearl ashes are the chief articles of export. Montreal is the commercial emporium of the two Canadas. It is the centre of the fur trade and commerce with the United States. Both provinces have fine manufacturing advantages.

We come now to the last important question which suggests itself. Will Great Britain give her consent to the annexation of Canada to our confederacy? We believe she will. To suppress the rebellion of 1837 it cost her a larger amount almost than her colonies are worth. She did not care so much about losing Canada as she was incensed that the Canadians should have had the audacity to rebel against her authority. She was peculiarly sensitive on the subject of colonial resistance, in view of the course of the "old thirteen." If she could have foreseen that Canada would have caused her the trouble she did in '37, she would have granted her independence, and said, joy go with her. Now made wise by past events, though it will be mortifying to England's pride to see Canada throwing off her yoke, yet in view of the advantages which will accrue to her from such a course, and especially in view of what it would cost her to prevent the loss of her province, she will allow it to escape her thralldom and become an American state. The Spectator, of 25th Aug., speaking of the independence of British Colonies, including Canada, holds this language:—

"The idea of independence is becoming familiarized to colonists in various quarters; and several English statesmen actuated by indifference or the fatalism of official routine, studiously and avowedly contemplate the ultimate separation of the colonies."

Here is an extract from the same paper of 26th of May:—

"It is true that a numerous party in this country would be ready to abandon all our colonies, and would be willing to begin with Canada. It is true that the papers which the writer of the letter quotes from leading papers in the Whig interest, indicate that the whig ministers correctly head that colonial abandonment party. But the country is not yet wholly possessed by the Manchester school; and however ministers may count upon a general neutrality at present, they would find, as soon as it really came to a question of "dismembering the empire," that the English people are not in favor of a surrender to which our ministerial writers are endeavoring to reconcile the country."

The Montreal Herald, a tory paper, from which we have already quoted, after asking the question, will the British government oppose annexation, proceeds thus to speak of the advantages which would accrue to the mother country by a separation:—

"Let due time be given for consideration; let the question be approached in the right spirit; and we believe she will not oppose it. The whole current of opinion among England's most influential statesmen, is evidently tending towards that point, when they will bid adieu to the colonies, with wishes for their prosperity, and hopes for continued friendship between the two countries—nominally separated—perhaps, to be still more closely allied by good offices and commercial intercourse. But it is not only on the opinions of her statesmen that we found our views of the course which Great Britain would take, if our independence were formally demanded. The whole course of our political and commercial relations with the mother country, must go to show that Canada is, virtually independent, and might be more flourishing herself, and therefore more profitable to Great Britain, if she were separated."

It seems that the only stumbling block in the way of those in England, who oppose annexation, is "dismembering the empire." They would not so much regret the loss of Canada, but there is something horrid in "dismembering the empire." They remember that the once powerful empires of the Spaniards and the Portuguese commenced to dwindle away with the loss of their colonies. They cannot see that the present insignificance of Spain and Portugal is attributable to other causes than the spoliation of their territories. They cannot see that other causes produced this result, and hastened the loss of the colonies. They mistake the effect for the cause, and, reasoning from analogy, tremble for the glory and power of the British Empire. Those who view things in a more philosophical light have no such gloomy forebodings—at least, on account of a loss to England of her western colonies. They believe, on the contrary, that a peaceful acknowledgment of the claims of the English western colonies to a place upon the list of nations, will redound to the benefit of the mother country, by allowing her to concentrate all her energies to another field of power and territorial aggrandizement.

From the earliest periods the wealth of India and the East, has offered a luring bait to the cupidity of European nations and conquerors. Philip of Macedon, after he had fastened his yoke upon the Grecian states,

invited them to join him in the conquest of Persia, no doubt intending to push his victorious arms into the very heart of the East. He died by the hand of the assassin Pausanias, and his project was defeated. His mad son carried out the intentions of his father, and after adding Persia, Syria, Egypt, &c., to his dominions, the Macedonian lion crouched to spring upon India. His army worn down with fatigue and conquest, refused to follow him, and returning to the harlot city of Babylon, he whom the Brahmins call the *mighty murderer*, fell a victim to the omnipotence of the wine-cup. Had he only remained sober, and taken time to recruit his army, India might have been his. After the death of Cæsar, when the battle of Philippi made Mark Antony master of the destiny of Rome, to reward his troops who had given him this lofty position, he resolved to give to them the whole East for dismemberment and spoliation. But a more potent spell than ever that of Alexander's wine-cup, was thrown around him by the seduction of beauty, in the person of Cleopatra. Octavius, taking advantage of the fit of amatory intoxication brought upon his rival by Egypt's brilliant Queen, once more saved India from rapine and plunder. Thus did the wine-cup in one instance, and woman in the other, effect for the East what would have been vainly undertaken by the myriads of her dense population, and saved her from the two most potent efforts of ancient times, to despoil her of her wealth and freedom.

The effort of modern times to effect the same purpose, has been, and will be, more successful. John Bull, about the beginning of the 18th century, commenced a slower, but a surer plan of possessing himself of India than that pursued by either the Macedonian or the Roman. At that time, assuming the name of the British East India Company, he put on a mercantile coat, and was seen prowling about the banks of the Ganges, seeking admittance into India only for purposes of trade, as he then protested. The Indians slammed their door in his face, and then commenced on his part a petition, similar to that of the fox which we have heard of in a story intended for children, who wanted to get into the poultry yard. The fowls having an instinctive dread of foxes, refused him admittance. "Only," said he, "allow me to enter the tip of my nose." The fowls could see no mischief in this, and granted him the favor. Then came the request to admit only one foot, and this was granted for the same reason. Thus nose was admitted, then foot, then another, and another, until no part remained out but the tail. "Only allow me," said Reynard, finally, "to put in the tip of my tail." This was permitted by the silly fowls, and the cunning creature put in the tip of his tail, but not until his body had gone in before it. Then the fowls began to repent their folly, and reproached the fox with bad faith. His answer was that he had done no more than they allowed him to do.

As with the fox getting into the poultry yard, so has it been with John Bull in entering India. He only wanted at first to put in the tip of his nose, and by a kind of foxy diplomacy, has succeeded in getting in his whole body. India and the East must now be his, and he will not get drunk enough—pious John, with his missionary spirit, won't—to be like Alexander, defeated in his purpose. Neither will he, like Mark Antony, become the victim of beauty's seductions, and allow a pretty woman to turn him away from his hankering after Indian

wealth. John is a dear lover of wine, and a great admirer of women, but conquest and colonization are far sweeter and fairer to him.

The East is the El Dorado of England's future hopes. Even her powers of ubiquity are not so unlimited as to enable her to hold both her Eastern and Western possessions. She will give up the latter that she may devote all her energies to the former, for two reasons. One is, that her East India possessions are worth more to her than her Western; and another is that her Western possessions are in the neighborhood of a republic whose example teaches them what they may do for themselves in the way of self-government, while the East Indians will not think of republicanism for a long while to come. In the East she has to deal with the Mongolian race, and in the West with the Saxon. She knows the difference between the two. England sees that, apart from attending properly to her East Indian possessions, the Russian autocrat demands continual watching at her hands. The position which she has recently assumed towards the Czar in his affair with the Sultan, does not lessen her responsibility in that quarter.

The following extract from the London correspondence of the *National Intelligencer*, shows one of the many things which England thinks she can do by turning all her energies to the East:—

"A series of popular lectures on the cotton manufacture, is now delivering at the Whittington Club in London, by Mr. Warren of Manchester. In his first lecture, he stated that should the manufacturing population of his country, (England,) increase during the next ten years in the ratio in which it has during the last, it will become necessary, in order to support and employ them, to secure a permanent and cheap supply of cotton. This can be done by cultivating it in British India where, on the authority of Major General Briggs, Sir Charles Forbes and others, there can be produced a supply sufficient to meet the wants of the entire world, equal in quality to the article supplied from New Orleans, and cheaper than it by one half. He states the wages of the American slave laborer to be equal to about one shilling and a sixpence (33½ cts.) per day, whilst that of the Hindoo is only about two pence (4 cts.) The advantages to be derived from such a course, he stated to be the certainty of a good and adequate supply at a cheap rate, the consolidation of our Indian possessions by means of commerce, and the emancipation of American slaves by rendering their labor profitless to their owners."

At the same time that England promotes her own interest, by giving up her Western possessions, so that she may colonize more extensively in the East—so that she may raise cotton in India and thereby free our slaves, she will be the more reconciled to giving up Canada to our confederacy, so that the free States may have a majority in Congress. The abolition of slavery in the Southern States, is a great hobby with John Bull. John loves liberty. His bowels of mercy yearn with compassion over the hardships of our negroes, and the benevolent old soul in order to shatter the bonds of the Ethiopian, will enslave the less-pitied race of Mongolians, and as value received will give them the enormous per diem salary of four cents as payment for cheap cotton! Besides this, the hope that free soil will have the majority in the American Senate, will reconcile the old gentleman to the loss of his Canadian province! Ah, John, John, thou art a paradox!

Canada desires annexation. The British party desires it because any thing is preferable to them to being in the minority, with such a party in

the majority as the French party. The latter party desires it because they fear a return of the time when they will be denied all share in the government, and return to their state of vassalage. They are, too, more favorable to republicanism than their opponents. In addition to these reasons, both parties see the immense advantage of independence, and a guaranty of that independence by the strong arm of the American confederacy will induce them to go for annexation. England will not oppose it, because it would cost her so much to put down a revolution—because her commercial advantages will be increased by Canadian independence—because it will add to the number of free states in the American Union—because she is too busy with the annexation of Cashmere, and with taking care of the already annexed Scinde and land of the Sikhs. The Northern states of this Union will probably favor it because it will be acquiring free territory.

If we of the South believe that Free Soilism desires the annexation of Canada for abolition purposes we shall "oppose it to the bitter end," now and forever; and in doing so we shall not be opposing the acquisition of territory, but shall be combatting the spirit of fanaticism which seeks to trample us, our equal rights, and our institutions, under foot. If, on the other hand, we of the South can believe, that the North desire, the annexation of Canada only as an amplitude of our grand and glorious republic, without reference to the question of slavery, we shall open our arms for the reception of a sister who has cast off the rags of monarchy, and comes to our bosom clad in the heavenly livery of republicanism. We need not be told that we are weak. This was the song which was sung by the myrmidons of high-handed oppression when the thunders of eloquence burst from the lips of a Patrick Henry, and taught his countrymen they were not weak. You are weak; this was the insult which was cast in the teeth of the blind giant Sampson, shorn of his locks, wherein lay his power. But as Sampson laid hold upon the pillars of the temple, and buried 'neath its falling roof and crashing walls, his proud insulters, so will we, if we are continually taunted with our weakness, lay hold upon the pillars of a temple more magnificent than that of the Philistines, and bury in one grand ruin the oppressor along with the oppressed.

ART. VI.—CURRENCY AND BANKS.

ACCUMULATION OF SPECIE IN NEW-YORK AND NEW ORLEANS—EXCHANGE PRO FORMA OF UNITED STATES COIN—EXPORT OF GOLD—PAR OF EXCHANGE—RELATIVE VALUE OF GOLD AND SILVER—RISE IN SILVER—VALUE OF THE £—INTERNAL EXCHANGES—REGULATION.

The exchanges being in favor of New York from all quarters, as well South and West as from abroad, the supply of the precious metals increases rapidly. The amount of specie received at the United States mints, is now about \$24,000,000, and the importations for four months, were as follows, at the port of New York :—

	JAN.	FEB.	MARCH	APRIL	TOTAL.
Import—	433,822	581,362	907,534	1,095,478	3,018,356
Export—	90,161	278,786	172,087	290,407	831,441
	343,721	302,576	735,547	805,071	2,186,915

This considerable excess of import added to the California receipts, was aided by nearly \$500,000 of silver, which arrived from Ohio, New Orleans, and elsewhere. By these means the specie in the New York banks has swollen to a high figure, notwithstanding the Custom house demands. The amount of specie in that city has varied as follows:—

SPECIE IN NEW YORK.

	SEP. 22,	JAN. 1850,	MARCH 26,	MAY 15,	AUGUST 20.
In Bank,	8,022,246	7,169,016	6,861,601	8,828,000	9,250,000
“ Treasury,	3,600,006	3,550,000	4,365,000	4,711,767	5,787,842
	11,622,252	10,719,016	11,226,601	13,539,767	15,037,842

The increase from the close of March was important. At N. Orleans in the same period, there was a diminution from \$8,350,283, March 31, to 7,903,306, April 27th, under the influence of exchanges in favor of N York. Silver under the foreign demand, continues to flow northward and westward in considerable amounts, but the specie held by the northern banks consists almost exclusively of American gold, and this cannot be shipped to London under 11 1-8 per cent. In proof of this, we append the *pro forma* of an actual shipment:—

AMERICAN GOLD FROM NEW YORK TO LONDON.

10,000 eagles cost		\$100,000
Insurance, \$101,000 at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	505.00	
Policy Keys packages and charges	5.50	510.56
Cost in New York		\$100,510.50
Proceeds 2 kegs containing 10,000 Eagles, melted into		
30 bars, weighing 447 lb. 7 oz. 16 dwt. 0 grains, reported worse 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains.		
Equal to 439 “ 4 “ 12 “ 3 “ standard.		
Or 5272 oz. 12 dwt. 3 grs., at 77s. 9d.	£20,497	5 1
Allowed by melters for adherence to crucibles,		2 18 3
	£20,500	3 4
Charges at Liverpool, Freight $\frac{1}{2}$,	£78	2 6
Landing,		1 10 0
Carriage to London and France, 3s. per £100,	30	15 0
Portage and car-hire,		8 0
Cartage to and from melters,		1 0 0
Melting,	11	4 0
Assaying,	7	10 6
		30,369 13 4
Add Interest on Bills, say 50 days at 3 per ct.		84 17 6
		30,454 10 10
Less commission on bills $\frac{1}{2}$ per ct. on £20,352 15 7,		101 15 3
		£20,352 15 7
Cash in London,		
Which amount drawn at 60 days' sight, to produce \$100,510.50, equals an exchange of 111 $\frac{1}{2}$.		

The same operation on Mexican dollars to Paris or London, results in a rate of 9.46 on the latter, and 5.21 1-4 on the former place ; as gold is likely to become a staple export from this country, and its changing value will call for a readjustment of the "standard," we have thought proper to enter into some examination of the subject here, as matter that must speedily affect the importing interest.

Most countries, it is known, use the precious metals as currency, but the United States alone make both metals and the coins of all nations a legal tender. In Europe, almost all the nations have silver alone as a legal currency. England, on the other hand, has gold alone, with silver to the amount of 40s. only. The United States make both metals. Now it is obvious that to ascertain what a par of exchange is, it is requisite to know what the standard coin of one country is worth in another at the time. But the value of both metals is always changing in relation to each other. When the mines of America were discovered, gold was worth 1 to 10 of silver ; that is, one ounce of gold was worth 10 of silver. The new supplies of the latter metal diminished its relative value, until at the close of the last century, one ounce of gold was worth 15 of silver. Now, in coining, all countries vary the legal relative value of silver. In the United States it was 15 to 1 ; in England, 14½ to 1 ; in Hamburg, 15 to 1 ; in Paris, 13½ to 1 ; In Madrid, 16 to 1. Now it will be observed that the state of the markets of exchange effects the value of these metals relatively ; a demand for gold will raise its relative value, and for silver likewise. During a part of the 18th century Spanish pillar dollars circulated in these then colonies, and in London they were worth 4s. 6d. each ; that is to say, \$4 44 4 were a £ sterling. Since that time silver has fallen in value until it came to be worth 4s. 10d. per oz., or 4s. 2d. each, making the sovereign \$4 87½ ; but this changing value was not expressed in dollars and cents per £, but in per cent., and this erroneous expression has perpetuated the error.

Since the commencement of the present century, both the standards of England and the United States have undergone a change. In 1816, a complete new coinage took place in England, by which the value of coin was advanced 6½ per cent. ; that is to say, before that time, one lb. Troy of standard gold, 22 carats, was coined into 44½ guineas ; after that, into 46 29-40 sovereigns. From a Troy lb. of silver, 62 shillings had been coined, and afterwards 66 shillings. This latter was higher than the market price of silver, and designed to keep those coins in the country ; of course this change affected the relative value to United States coins, and the gold par between the countries has changed three times. Thus under the laws of 1790, the eagle of \$10 contained 247.5 grains pure gold, or 270 grains standard, and the English guinea at that time 118.65 grains pure gold, or 128 grains standard, and was worth as compared to the eagle \$4 76. In 1792, a law of Congress ordered the custom house to value the English coins at 100 cts. for every 27 grains actual weight, which was valuing the guinea at \$4 74. When the English coinage was changed in 1816, the sovereign contained 113.11 grains, and the eagle remaining the same, the par was \$4 56 for gold ; consequently, very little gold came here, and nearly all the coinage was of silver. It also happened that the relative value of gold to silver

from 15 to 1 had declined to 16 to 1, which aided the change in the British coins in sending the gold from this country. A change became necessary, and in 1834, the gold bill did for our currency what had been done for that of England by Act of Parliament in 1816; that is to say, the pure gold in the eagle was reduced from 247.5 grains to 232 grains, at which rate the par of gold between here and England was raised to \$4 87.5. These changes are seen in the following table:—

EAGLE.		UNITED STATES AND BRITISH COINS.		
Weight grs.	Pure gold.	Weight.	Pure gold.	Relative price.
1792, 270	247.5	128	118.65	\$4 76
1816, 270	247.5	123	113.11	\$4 56
1834, 258	232.0	123	113.11	\$4 87
1837, 258	232.2	123	113.11	\$4 86

In the United States, the silver remaining the same, the taking of 15 grs. of gold out of the \$10 gold piece raised the relative value of silver to 16 to 1, and this seems to have been about the true gauge hitherto. Now it will be observed that London is the great market for silver, whence Europe supplies itself. It is there not money but merchandize; when there is a demand for it on the continent it rises in price, and of course like any other merchandize, it is sent to the place where it sells best. As an instance, in 1829, dollars sold in London 4s. 9d. per oz.; \$1000 weigh 866 oz.; at the same time dollars were at par in New-York. The French Revolution of 1830, caused a demand for the Continent, and dollars rose in London to 4s. 11½d., and to 2½ per ct. premium in New-York, just as cotton or any other article rises here when there is a demand for it. Now suppose a merchant owes in London £1000, and the currency here being in dollars he is to remit them in payment. Dollars are not money in London, and he looks at the last quotation, and finds new dollars sell 4s. 10d. per ounce, as \$1000 weigh 866 oz. they are then worth 4s. 2d., or 50d. each, consequently to pay £1000 requires \$4800, and to send them there according to the proforma of an actual shipment will cost \$200 more, say \$5000. Instead of doing this he buys a bill of exchange, for which the account will run thus:—

A to B.	Dr.	
For bill due on London, £1000,		\$4,444 44
Advance 9 per cent,	-	399 99
		<hr/> 4,844 33
Brokerage ¼ per cent.,	-	12 11
		<hr/> \$4,856 44

Now this bill at 9 per ct. premium has cost him \$143 56 less than the expense of sending dollars or *less* than *par*, notwithstanding the absurd manner of making out the bill. Again, say a stock bond for \$1000 is sold in London at what is called par at the rate \$4 44 per £, the payment is £225 for which \$1078 may be bought in the market, which is £4 84 per £. If the 225 sovereigns are brought home they are worth about the same here. The movement of the metals never takes place, either way, however, until the variation of the exchange will cover the cost. Thus sovereigns cannot be sent from London to the United States when

exchange is over $5\frac{1}{2}$ premium, and cannot go back when it is less than $10\frac{1}{4}$, being a range of nearly 5 per cent; and American gold cannot go under $11\frac{1}{4}$. It is now probable, that from the supply of gold instead of silver continuing to fall, it will rise in value and perhaps get back to the old par of \$4 44. Many of the countries of Europe, as Holland for instance, are abandoning gold as a standard, in this view, and it may become expedient for the United States to abandon silver for large amounts and adhere only to gold.

Among the most remarkable mutations which change of circumstances has wrought in public opinion, is doubtless that which was formerly entertained in relation to the "regulating powers" of a national bank, and the necessity of such an institution to maintain anything like an equilibrium in the rates for exchanges, external and internal. A race of merchants had grown up familiar only with the paper money system of the country, emanating from local banks in all sections, and so thoroughly had this paper money become identified with business operations that it was with the greatest difficulty and the occurrence of most serious revolutions that the difference between exchange and the discount upon paper money was at last made apparent. So long as no money was known to command other than the promises of banks, and those promises were like other merchantable articles dependant for their relative value upon the quantity issued, it was of course evident that some means of checking an undue issue in any one quarter should exist. This was afforded by the National Bank, which through its branches was always a creditor institution. That is to say, the collections and mercantile notes due at any centre of commerce, as Richmond, Charleston, Cincinnati, &c., were sent to those points payable at the branch, and as the money in which payment was made consisted of the bills of the local banks. These accumulated in the branch and were by it returned upon the issuing bank for specie or exchange. It is obvious that no bank could issue unduly without having its bills promptly returned. By those means, however, the remittances from most sections were nearly all made by the branches to the common centre of commerce, New-York, and the National Bank enjoyed a monopoly of exchange which would enable her to put the rates up or down at her pleasure. The facility of collecting through this system of the universal currency which the bills of all the branches enjoyed, was felt to be an advantage so great by the mercantile community, who had never known any other manner of exchanges, that the destruction of it was regarded with dread and dismay.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1. MELSENS' IMPROVED PROCESS OF MAKING SUGAR.

We understand that this method will be extensively used the ensuing season, and as it is a subject of vital importance to many of our subscribers, we have taken some pains to ascertain the practical utility which is likely to accrue from the use of the bisulphite of lime; and from the respectability of the parties from whom our information is derived, we have every reliance that, in practice, our observations will be found correct.

From the careful trials made during the close of the last grinding season, by Mr. Thos. A. Morgan, and several other planters of experience, who took the precaution of procuring pure bisulphite, it appears that the utmost confidence can be placed in the statements of Professor Melsens in his treatise. This treatise our readers will remember to have seen in our columns, in both languages. We mention this because the truth of his assertion, that by his process, if carried out to its full extent, the whole of the saccharine matter contained in the cane can be converted into crystallizable sugar, has been called in question. And we are happy to find, from some of these very experiments, conducted with attention, in following out the instructions in the treatise, that a very superior crystallized sugar was the result of the operation, without any residuum of molasses. Nevertheless, we are quite of opinion that, with the present sugar apparatus, it will not pay to carry the process beyond two crystallizations, with a residuum of sugar-house molasses. This will give a large gain in quantity as well as quality over the present ordinary lime process.

One important advantage connected with Melsens' process is, that it adapts itself at once to every form of mechanical apparatus in use in this State.

The first business of the planter should be to procure a pure bisulphite of uniform strength, without which all the rest is of no avail; and we are gratified to find that the agent for the patentee has provided for this by erecting a powerful apparatus for the manufacture of the article here on a large scale, to ensure permanency and economy. It is the intention also to sell the bisulphite at a lower price than it can be had for any where else in the United States.

In badly-made bisulphite the principal impurities are hyposulphurous acid and free sulphur, both highly deleterious to sugar, and both of which impart to it a disagreeable flavor. The pure bisulphite communicates no flavor or smell, unless used in excessive quantities. The planter therefore should be cautious in purchasing only from responsible parties. Trash of all kinds has been sent from the North, and it is not unlikely that some of it may find its way here.

Bisulphite of lime, when crystallized, or even concentrated, loses nearly its whole efficacy from the escape of the excess of sulphurous acid upon which its action in making good sugar mainly depends. Some of our principal chemists at the North tested this thoroughly last spring, knowing that it would be impossible to send it in a fluid state, and compete with the price it could be made for here. Bisulphite, when of good quality, should be perfectly limpid, and mark at least ten degrees on Beaume's areometer. Such an article, with ordinary skill, will produce a beautiful sugar, both as to color and grain; and if a good process of decantation be adopted, the result will give a still greater improvement than without it. The commonest kettle-process will perhaps derive most benefit from Melsens'; but none should stop there, because the addition of clarifiers, and the means of one decantation at 24 to 25 degrees Beaume, will give results that will largely remunerate for the cost of such additions.

From past experience it would appear that the quantity of bisulphite used has been too great. To combine economy with effect we should recommend from 1½ to 2½ gallons as sufficient to heat juice enough to make a hogshead of sugar, according to the quality of the cane. The cost of a gallon of bisulphite will be not over 25 cents, and it must be applied to the juice as soon as possible after it is expressed.

This done, the juice will be in a condition impervious to change, for the bisulphite prevents the formation of all ferments; and then, even in the common kettles, provided they be set so that the *grand* can be brought to the boil during clarification, the benefit of the bisulphite of lime as a defecator will be at once apparent. Of course the process will be still more effective when the clarification is performed by steam, and especially if the juice be afterwards left to repose in suitable receivers for about

twelve hours, to deposit the whole of the defecated matter, and nothing but bright, clear liquor used for evaporation. To the planter on Red River the Melsens process must be peculiarly valuable, for by it the juice of green cane can be granulated, and all the disadvantages be obviated that attended premature grinding in that quarter. And in Texas also, the planter, from being enabled to re-boil his molasses into sugar, will have a marketable article for home use of all he produces. Another great benefit will be found in the crystallization of the sugar. From the size of the grain there will be *no difficulty* in using the syruing process, even with sugar made in the ordinary kettles; and we really think planters will find it to their interest to pay attention to this, as we are satisfied that by the use of *good* bisulphite of lime in the proper quantity, a good clarification, with two decantations, one after the clarification and the other previous to the syrup being put into the battery, and this followed by the process of syruing in appropriate vessels, the sugar-maker will obtain, *at a small cost*, a sugar superior in grain, and little, if any, inferior in brilliancy of color to the best now made in the vacuum-pan by the aid of bone black; and in quantity, 20 per cent. at least more than what is now obtained by the common kettle-process. This will be fully tested, we understand, during the coming season, at Mr. Jno. Hagan, jr.'s, plantation, near Bayou Goule.

We will conclude by remarking, that inasmuch as the agent of Melsens, in his advertisement, offers to supply each planter with a barrel of bisulphite at a cheap rate, with permission to test the merit of the improvement, we strenuously advise all parties interested in sugar-planting to adopt the suggestion and give the new process a fair and proper trial; the cost is little or nothing—say \$10.50 for a barrel—and the benefit, if the process possess one-half the merit attributed to it, enormous. Those who tried it in Louisiana last winter estimated the improvement as worth in quality and increased product \$10 to \$15 a hogshead, according to the apparatus used.

N. O. Bee.

2. NEW SUGAR PROCESS IN ENGLAND.

MARK-LANE EXPRESS, London, June 10, 1850.

SUGAR.—Several samples of sugar, of a very superior quality as respects granular texture and brightness of color, have recently attracted considerable attention in the Bristol sugar market, which has led to much inquiry as to the process of manufacture among the merchants and proprietors of West India estates. It appears, from inquiries we have made, that by a combination of several patents—among others, the cleansing and drying of sugar by centrifugal force—sugar which formerly took three or four weeks to refine, is now done in as many minutes. Sugars heretofore unsaleable in the English market are, by the new process, converted as if by magic into an article realizing 36s. (\$8.64) per cwt. The machine by which the process is carried on is very cheap, portable, and easily worked, and the raw produce shipped in a state which prevents the waste of some 12 or 15 per cent. in shape of leakage from molasses. Next to the discovery of the vacuum-pan, the improvement of Messrs. Fingal & Son, of Bristol, ranks first in the scale of importance; and they have happily succeeded in combining the interests of various patents held by Messrs. Seyrig, Hardman, Rotch and others.—*Plough, Loom and Anvil.*

3. SUGAR-MAKING.—THE HIGHLANDS.

The question, "Are the highlands adapted to the growth and culture of the cane?" has been answered. It is no longer an experiment. Instead of going to the lowlands to open a plantation, the former are now selected, as combining several very important advantages; security from overflow, without the expense of building levees, is the first and most obvious. The cane does not grow so large as on the coast, but makes equally as good sugar; the juice requires less boiling, and a less quantity is required to make the same quantity of sugar; so that, all things considered, the balance is in favor of the highlands. The last two years have brought a vast quantity of this land into cultivation—more, perhaps, than for any previous ten years. In this section the sugar-mill is rapidly taking the place of the cotton-gin—the unoccupied lands are coming into cultivation—and even the worn-out and abandoned cotton-fields are found well adapted to the raising of this crop.

We are informed that there are now being erected, in this immediate vicinity, no less than fifteen sugar-mills, at probably an average cost of \$10,000 each. This will

bring into cultivation not less than 5000 acres of land ; throwing into market 140,000 hogsheads of sugar, which will find its natural transit through Baton Rouge, contributing to her prosperity, and proving that she possesses the most substantial element of a great city : a rich back country.

4. PROSPECT FOR COTTON GROWERS.

The Hon. William Elliott, of South Carolina, in a late address before the Agricultural Society of that State, has put forward some views in regard to the Cotton interest of the South, which are deserving of the widest attention. This gentleman, in addition to being an experienced and successful planter, combines the merit of a liberal understanding of the principles of political economy. He says to the Cotton growers :

"I beg you to observe, that as the proprietors of the greatest and most productive cotton region in the world, we can produce in excess, *or forbear to do so* ; and in this way have our destinies, for good or evil, measurably in our own hands. Is it not strange that there are some who question the fact of over-production, or its influence in depressing prices ? Even so ; there are planters even, who decide in this against their own interests, and against the abundant and conclusive proofs that may be adduced in support of these positions. Instead of bewildering ourselves with elaborate statistics—skilfully put together by those whose policy it is to encourage us to produce in excess, by persuading us that the consumption is always equal to the supply—let us confine our attention to a period of time which is recent, of which the facts are distinctly within our reach, and where there is consequently the less chance of error and mystification. Take the three last years, for example, and what are the facts ? In 1847 we had a moderate crop of some 2,400,000 bales, and a moderate price to match it : eight cents, or thereabouts, was the rate for short cottons. We went on increasing the culture beyond the corresponding means of manufacture, and in 1848 produced the unprecedented crop of 2,728,000 bales. Before this great production was known, as soon as it was suspected, the price fell beyond all precedent, so that good cottons sold in our interior towns at $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents the pound : nor did the price rally, or reach a remunerating point, until the spring of 1849, when it *was known that the growing crop would be short*. In that year we had an inclement spring ; hundreds of thousands of acres of growing cotton were nipped or destroyed by the frosts and snow of April : alarm was felt for the sufficiency of the supply, and the price began to lift. Then came the army-worm and the cholera, the tempest and the inundation ; and with every cause which threatened the adequacy of the supply came increase of demand and price, till the staple reached its present profitable point, at which—could it be maintained—our prosperity would be established and secured. We perceive, then, referring to the last three years, and to the facts and indications which they offer us, that the prices of cotton have fallen as the supply has increased ; and risen as the supply has fallen short.

"I fear that we are not warranted in ascribing to our own forecast, the improved condition in which we now find ourselves. If the excess of production has been reduced, and our profits have thereby been sensibly enhanced, it is because Providence has cared for us better than we have cared for ourselves. True, we have diverted a portion of our labor and capital from the production of cotton. True, there are some of us, who, observant of events, have taken counsel from their understanding, and have applied themselves to the production of turpentine and rosin, of sugar and rice, and have even invested their money in machinery, and in the manufacture of cotton, instead of stimulating the already redundant growth—still it must be confessed that we continued to cultivate an extent of country sufficient to have yielded, with ordinary seasons, a crop of 2,500,000 bales. Had the crop approached that figure, should we ever had seen short cottons reach 13 and 14 cents ? I apprehend not. I think it is evident, from the facts already stated, that a high price for a short supply, and a low price for a large supply, follows naturally, in the relation of effect to its cause. Where, then, does interest, duty, patriotism, lead us ? Why, unquestionably *not* to such an excessive production, as will surfeit, and nauseate our customers, but to such a moderate production as will sustain a remunerating price, and thus perpetuate our prosperity."

ADVICE TO THE PLANTERS.

"If I have succeeded in establishing my positions, it will follow, gentlemen, that there is a clear line of policy laid down for us, from which we cannot depart without disappointment and loss. It devolves on us in particular, to divert from cotton to rice, as much of our labor and capital as the lands we may own, adapted to such change, will admit of. To others, a still wider range is permitted, in the transferring of labor to the production of tobacco, or sugar, or turpentine. To all of us, it is expedient to divert capital, by every available mode, from the superabundant production of cotton to other pursuits. This is the interest of us all; the only certain and effectual mode by which we can prevent our relapsing into that deplorable condition from which we have so recently, and unexpectedly escaped. For if we all act on the deceptive supposition that the present prices will continue, when a full crop has been thrown on the market, and the apprehensions of scarcity shall thus have been quieted—if we aid in producing this result, by stretching to its utmost limit the capacity of our lands for the production of cotton—the prosperity that now gladdens the South will be short-lived, and we shall again be painfully familiar with glutted markets, forced sales, unremunerating prices, and all the other evils that wait upon excess. It may be said that what *we* do, is of little moment: that our contribution is too insignificant to be felt in the general result, on so extensive a field. This reasoning will not do; it is by reasoning thus that the very mischief is produced. It is by contributions of single drops that the Mississippi rolls her thousand miles of current to the Gulf, beats back the opposing wave, and quells the saltiness of the sea, by the volume of her descending waters. Let us do our part in the confidence that others, equally interested with ourselves, will, when they see their way as clearly, equally do theirs."

INFLUENCES OF SHORT CROP AND OUR MONOPOLY.

"I wish that what I have elsewhere said, exposing the suicidal policy heretofore pursued by the cotton growers, could reach the ear, and touch the understanding of every planter throughout the wide South, who is interested in that staple. It is undeniable—it is a familiar and unquestionable truth—that two millions of bales of cotton, at the present prices, will yield to the cultivators many millions of dollars more than the 2,728,000 bales of 1848, *at the prices of 1848*. It is evident, therefore, that the supply beyond the 2,000,000 is to the planter superfluous; nay, worse, for it has served to diminish or destroy the value of the 2,000,000 bales, while the labor thus destructively applied, might, if turned into some other channel, have been productive and remunerating. By this excess, then, you lose the natural commercial value of a moderate and sufficient crop, and the further contingent value which your labor, unless thus misdirected, might have produced. In speaking to intelligent and practical men like yourselves, I address myself, as you perceive, to your understandings; these satisfied, no further powers of persuasion will be needed. Yet there are some who would induce you (I am sure without satisfying your understanding) to continue this ruinous course of over-production. They tell you, that if you do not monopolize the cotton trade it will be wrested from you. Interlopers will step in and eject you. This is the argument of those who neither know our country, nor understand our character, nor appreciate our energy; an argument addressed to our presumed ignorance, or to our fears, by those who would induce us to push a production, *for their profit*, beyond the point at which it would be profitable to us. Why it requires but a glance to detect its fallacy, and to convince us that with our climate, so admirably suited to the cotton plant; our soil, the richest, freshest, best adapted to the culture; our labor, the cheapest, the most reliable, the most manageable,—*we defy competition, much less ejection!* and will command the cotton trade in spite of England, and the world, as long as the profits of the culture make it an object of desire or emulation to us. If we could have been dislodged from the vantage ground we hold, England would have already done it. She cares not to be thus dependent on us for a prime necessary of her commercial, nay, her political life. She has made experiment after experiment in India, to relieve herself of this dependence; followed in every case by deplorable failure. She has flattered, and cajoled, and bribed Egypt, with but small success; Egyptians need remunerating prices for their products, as well as we, and Egypt has not land to spare from the subsistence of her crowded population. Where can the raw material be found to keep employed the thousand work-

shops of Europe and America, if we decline the culture? Who shall supply our place, if we withdraw? There are signs of agitation in the public mind of England, in regard to this vital interest. There are schemes for encouraging the culture of cotton in other lands, and making themselves independent of our supplies. They even turn an eye of uncertain hope to Jamaica, to their West Indian colonies,—so long tortured by empyrical legislators, so long trampled by fanaticism; and after having starved them into such helpless imbecility, such utter exhaustion, that all effort is revolting to them—now vainly expect to galvanize them into the production of cotton! The expectation will never be fulfilled. There is but one possible way to effect their purpose. It is by giving higher prices for the product than are now paid. It is by tempting others to cultivate, by the promise of higher profits than are now realized on the capital engaged in the production. Will the cupidity of commerce *do that*? It does, and is doing, just the reverse. It is engaged in working short time, to drive down the price; in withholding bank accommodations to cotton dealers, lest by entering the market, they should compete with the manufacturers, and thus sustain the price. They are now engaged, I say, in beating down the price of our cotton, and would succeed, were they not met and foiled by the *shortness of the crop*! Gentlemen, we cannot be rivalled in this branch of industry—the production of cotton—while we possess along with our other advantages, the valley of the Mississippi; nor impoverished, except by our own act, *by over-production*.”

5. CULTURE OF RICE.

The millions of acres of land adapted to this most lucrative crop in Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, etc., give the subject an interest much wider than in South Carolina and Georgia, which have hitherto for the most part monopolized it. Many enquiries are made of us from time to time relating to the culture and preparation of this crop, and we have answered them by publishing Col. Allston's elaborate Memoir of the Rice Plant in our first volume, a Report on the Culture in India in our 3d vol., and some papers on the same in Alabama and Louisiana in our 5th and 8th volumes. To this we add the following, from the pen of Edmund Ruffin, one of the ablest agricultural writers in this nation, and the State Geologist of South Carolina, Virginia, &c. We shall resume the subject again:

“Rice is an aquatic plant, and naturally, it may be inferred, its growth was on lands always under water, or saturated with it whenever not altogether covered. And under culture, and even when in other than in its native region, doubtless rice would prefer the continuance of water. But other needs than the mere supply of food for the plants have to be provided for, which require a dry condition of the soil, at some periods. And fortunately, rice is so hardy that it will grow either under water or on dry land, and with violent alternations of these opposite conditions. It is necessary that the land should be dry to prepare for and plant the crop—also for the purpose of removing weeds, which being native to the soil and climate, are therefore more hardy than the cultivated crop—and again to reap and remove the matured crop. But it would seem to be the general principle of the culture, that the growing rice should be kept covered with water as much as is consistent with effecting the foregoing objects; and with another important exception, to indulging its aquatic nature and preference, which exception is, to avoid too sudden and thorough changes from the wet to the dry condition, or rather from the effects of those conditions.”

PREPARATION OF LAND AND PLOUGHING.

“The flooding and drying of the rice land, when new, is conducted much in the same manner as in after time; but the preparation for, and tillage must vary, according to the state of the land and its wants, while the stumps, roots, and other superabundant and fine vegetable matters are gradually rotting away, and the soil consolidating and becoming lower and closer. Passing over the less regular operations of earlier years, let us suppose the latter condition reached; and the proper and usual course of culture, suitable to this permanent condition, will be now stated.

“We suppose the field to have been in rice the preceding year, and it is never other-

wise on new and good land, and very rarely on any,—if the land be still new, or the soil loose enough, and sometimes also on old land, many persons, just before planting time, open new trenches for planting between the rows of the last year, the stubble having been burned off previously. But usually, and especially on old land, the whole surface is broken up flush, either by the hoe or the plough. The plough is far from being in general use; nor indeed is it admissible except on well drained land, and also firm land, such as the Peedee swamps. Even in these cases, some object to its being used every spring, but prefer it in every other spring, alternating with breaking by hoeing. This is because fearing to make the sub-soil too close by pressure. The breaking, whether by hoe or plough, rarely exceeds 3 inches deep; the deepest hoeing, done by sinking in the ordinary hoes 'up to the eye,' cannot be more than 4 inches, owing to the oblique direction of the cut. It is aimed to subvert the earth by the hoe; but this is always but imperfectly done, as is shown in the first flow by the quantity of floating stubble and roots, which had been left on the surface. I should have stated that the stubble of the preceding crop is most generally burnt off before the breaking up of the ground, or otherwise is turned in by the plough or hoe. If the birds had not been early enough in coming, and numerous enough to eat up all the shattered grains of the last year's crop of rice, the turning the stubble in, by planting all remaining grains, tends to increase the growth of volunteer rice—which evil, in such case, the other plan of burning to stubble would lessen.

"After the land is dug up, the next process is to 'slush' or clean out all the drains. When planting time draws near, part of the land, say about one third, is 'mashed,' that is, the clods chopped and the surface levelled by hoes. This is sometimes expedited by previous harrowing, but it is not a general practice. The balance of the land is mashed as wanted for planting, and just before the planting.

"The time to begin planting is from March 20th to April 1st. For this, the land, having been prepared and made fine enough by the 'mashing' process, just before, the rows are marked off, 13 inches apart, as follows: having determined on the direction of the rows, which is sometimes with the drains, but by most good planters is preferred across the direction of the drains, a number of rows, say 30 or more, are laid off 4 feet 4 inches apart, by 3 stakes stuck up in each row, the end stakes or 'trenching stakes' not reaching near to the extremity of the field designed to be planted at one time. Guided by these stakes, expert hands 'trench' rows with trenching hoes, about 2 inches deep. These hoes are narrowed to 3 or 4 inches at the edge, and of course open trenches of that width. Next, another hand follows, and by similar trenches splits the intervals, and then splits the halves, thus completing the rows at 13 inches. The expertness of the hands, and the accuracy of their work in these operations, are admirable. The seed is then strewn along the trenches, and scattered as wide as their width, by women. Two and a quarter bushels of good rice (rough, or in its close envelope of chaff,) are by many deemed enough for an acre. The seeds are covered immediately, either by rakes, hoes or covering boards, which are fixed with handles like rakes, and struck on the edge of the row, so as to throw a little earth upon the seeds.

"*'The sprout flow.'* The planting of each field should be completed the day it is begun, and on the next rise of tide, the trunk's outer door is lifted, and the water admitted to overflow the field. It should cover every part; and the depth is not deemed very material, though the shallowest complete covering by water is enough, and perhaps the best for the seed. A deep flow may injure the banks by washing them when the wind blows. Or it may even break an interior bank, if weak, by inward pressure. If the land be very light and loose vegetable soil, the water should be admitted slowly, for fear of washing, or even of floating some of the soil. As soon as a field is completely flowed, and the remains of stubble and other floated trash is wafted by the wind against a bank, it is drawn out by long handled rakes, and burnt as soon as it becomes dry. The inner valve is closed, when there is enough water on. This first watering is called the 'sprout flow,' and is continued until the seeds 'pip,' or the sprouts burst the envelope of chaff, when the water is drawn off. The time of this flow depends on the warmth of the weather. Sometimes only 4 or 5 days. In this most remarkably cold and backward season, (1843,) some plantings have been under the sprout flow for 14 days, and the seeds have not yet (on April 7th) sprouted.

"*'The point flow.'* After the water has been drawn off, it is necessary to guard the fields from birds. The land remains uncovered and drained until the plants have risen above ground enough for their fine spires to show like small needles, when viewed before sunrise, while tipped with dew, and when the rows can thus be seen

for about 50 yards in length from the banks. Then the water is admitted again to cover the field. This is called the 'point flow.' It serves to protect the seeds from birds, to soften the hard lumps of earth, and to kill the grass, while it does not injure the rice plants. This flow continues from 3 to 7 days, and until the plants are 3 or 4 inches high. If the water be continued longer, the plants grow too slender and long, and will fall on the ground, when the support of the water is taken away—though they will rise again; and even were they to rot off, in that case new leaves will spring out. It is preferable to see the plants thus fall, rather than expose the rice too soon to the depredations of birds.

"As the different fields, or separately embanked portions, are successively planted (and the planting is usually continued from 4 to 5 weeks,) of course the flowing should follow in like order. Thus while water is going upon one piece, it may be passing off from another; and the separate but adjacent fields present all the various states of flooding and drying.

"**Planting in 'open trench.'** The foregoing description applies only when the plan of covering the seeds by earth is adopted. There is also in general use, and latterly a more extensively pursued plan, of *not* covering the seeds, and which will be now described.* For this mode, before planting, the seeds are 'clayed.' This consists in pouring water in which clay has been mixed and is suspended over a pile of seed rice, which is kept stirred and worked up until every grain is wetted. If this claying were not done, the small and short fibres on the grain would prevent the immediate access of the flow water, and the grains would float, which they cannot do. With this treatment, after being 'clayed,' (the effect of which is so slight as scarcely to alter the appearance of the grains,) the rice is dried enough to be distributed easily, and strewed in the trenches as before described. But no covering of earth is given; and as fast as each separate piece of land is thus planted, (or even before the last of it is finished,) the outer trunk door is lifted, and the tide admitted, slowly and gradually at first, to flow the land. The land remains undisturbed under this flow until the sprouts, which are at first white, become green, or the plants rise high enough to 'fork,' or for the first two leaves to separate, which will be when the plants are one and a half or two inches high, and at from 10 to 30 days, according to the weather. After this, the water is passed off, and the land dried. Floating trash should previously be removed, as before stated. If the surface should afterwards become too dry, the water is admitted to flow in for a single flood tide, to barely wet the soil, be kept shut in during the next ebb, and passed out and again excluded with the first lowering of tide thereafter.

"By this method (of 'planting in open trench') the longer duration of the first flowing unites and brings into one the 'sprout' and the 'point flow' of the covered planting. At the stages now reached by both, it may be considered that the plantings on the two methods cease to differ, and thereafter the crops on both are treated alike, and will be described as one.

"The advantages of the 'Open Trench' plan are the following:

"First: The whole labor of covering is saved, which requires twice as much labor as the strewing the seeds.

"Second: The depredations of birds and other vermin are prevented.

"Third: Most of the seeds of 'volunteer rice' and other weeds and grass seeds, may be presumed to have been drawn outside of the trenches in opening them; and instead of being again drawn back into the drills of rice in the earth, as must be done when the rice is covered, these seeds remain and grow outside of the drills, and may afterwards be more easily destroyed by hoeing or pulling out.

"Fourth: If a freshet of the river compels the water of the 'Sprout Flow' to be kept up much longer than the prescribed termination, the covered rice is apt to rot; of which there is no danger on the 'Open Trench' plan. The cause of this important difference is not understood—though it is supposed to be the beneficial influence of light in the one case, and its exclusion in the other.

"There are also countervailing objections to the 'Open Trench' plan, which will be named:

"First: The long continuation of the water (which sometimes, in early plantings or backward seasons, may extend to 25 or 30 days) promotes the growth of water grasses.

* From a communication to the State Agricultural Society by the Hon. R. F. W. Allston, which has been published since this report was written, I learned that the honor of having first used and introduced this important improvement in rice culture is due to John H. Allston, Esq.

"Second: In light soil, the loose mould may be so moved by the agitation of the water by high winds, as to cover much of the seed unequally and too deep.*

"Third: The same operation is injurious to ditches and drains, by carrying soft earth into them.

"And fourth: By the dashing of the waves washing the sides of the banks, which last is the greatest defect in the plan.

"The balancing of the advantages and disadvantages of the 'Open Trench' plan prevents either that or the other mode being generally adopted exclusively. It is deemed best to choose between them according to circumstances; and usually, to plant and cover in part of the fields, say for about one-third of the crop, and to leave the balance in open trench."

FIRST AND SECOND HOEINGS, AND THE 'LONG FLOW.'

"The rice (on both the foregoing plans of planting) from the removal of the water, as already stated, remains dry until the plants have acquired enough size and strength to resist the pressure of the light earth as falling from the hoes. Then the intervals between the rows are hoed, by chopping short and shallow, suited to the then low state of the plants, and care should be taken not to cover the plants by clods; and all clods left previously on the plants should be cleared off at this hoeing.

"The rice land is left dry from the first hoeing until after the second, which is to be given from 14 to 18 days thereafter. The second hoeing is given a little deeper than the first; and any large weeds or grass then distinguishable in the rows are pulled up. The rice then has 3 leaves, and is 6 or 8 inches high. If in dry weather the land is left dry a day or two after this second hoeing, for the uprooted weeds to die, before the next water is turned on; but if wet weather, the land is flowed immediately. This is the 'long flow.' The water is raised at first above the tops of the plants, so as to float off trash, bugs, &c., which floating stuff will be driven by the wind into corners of the fields, and should be gathered up and removed. Then the water is lowered, so that, if the surface of the field be as level as usual, (and as it ought to be,) the tips of the plants are then seen above on the highest parts of the field. Then the water is lowered very gradually, and during several days, until the tips of about two-thirds of the plants of the entire field, or division of land, are above the surface of the water. The flow is then kept stationary at this precise height (which is fixed by making and observing marks on the trunk posts) for a duration of from 10 days on the lightest land to 20 on the stiffest, when the water is again entirely drawn off, which closes the 'long flow.' This is the most important flow, and its execution requires judgment and careful attention. At this critical period, a field of rice may be much injured either by too deep flowing, or by suddenly lowering and taking off the water. If the flow be continued too long, or the water be drawn off when the roots of the rice are in an exhausted condition, the plants will 'fox,' or take a reddish-brown tint.

"Some planters change the water during this flow, preserving the same level, but others object to it. If the same water is continued, it ferments, and a frothy scum rises, which being collected by the wind in particular spots, will adhere to and kill the plants. To prevent this, in such places the water is beaten or agitated, which causes the scum to break and sink to the bottom."

THIRD AND FOURTH HOEINGS, AND THE 'LAY-BY FLOW.'

"When the earth has become dry, the third hoeing is given, still deeper than the preceding, and afterwards each hand passes over his task, and pulls the grass out of the rows. The field then remains untouched and kept well drained until the plants are about to joint, when the fourth hoeing is given, light, and pulverizing all large masses left by the preceding deeper digging. The water is then again put on, and kept at about the same height as during the preceding 'long flow;' and this is maintained until the rice is fully headed and the blossoms dropped. The water is then raised as high as may be done without danger to the banks. It serves to support the plants, and prevent their being laid or tangled by high winds. This entire flowing is termed the 'lay-by water,' it being the last. It should have been mentioned that

* This objection may be easily obviated by letting the loose pulverized mould settle before sowing the seed. A rain will effect this purpose; and without rain, it may be done by turning in water for a single tide, and drying just before sowing the rice.

during the early and low stage of it, there is a distinct operation of the hands passing over the ground with baskets, and pulling out as much as possible of the volunteer rice, tick-grass, and other weeds, which would, if left, by admixture, injure the quality of the grain. The volunteer rice is carried off; and all other weeds are knotted together in handfuls and trodden in the wet earth under water, so as to be certainly killed. These two operations are performed at different and the most convenient times during the flow."

HARVESTING.

"The rice ripens usually from the 1st to the 10th of September. When all the grains are hard, except the lower two or three at the bottom of each head (though the stem and leaves are quite green) the crop is ready for reaping. And when the time for the commencement of reaping is determined upon, the water is drawn off of the field just the day before, or it may be best the preceding ebb tide; and the reaping may be begun when the flow has not yet entirely passed off. The reaping is performed by the sickle. Each hand usually carries a breadth of 3 rice rows. Some planters have 4 rows carried. The stubble is left about 12 inches high—or higher if of rank growth. The reaped rice is laid in handfuls as cut, in rows, on the stubble, to cure. The stubble is abundantly thick to thus support the rice, unless the growth is very thin, or has partially failed.

"All the rice reaped from morning until noon of one day is usually enough cured to be sheaved by noon the next day, and removed to the barn-yard before night. The test of its being dry enough, is when no juice can be made to exude from the joints, when twisted together by strong pressure. The rice is then bound or tied up in sheaves, as large as single lengths of the reaped rice will serve to tie around. The sheaves are generally made smaller than this. The sheaved rice is immediately carried to the barn-yard on the heads of the laborers, if near enough, or by water in large *flats*, if far from the barn. It is there put up in small cocks or ricks, to remain until dry enough to be put into larger long ricks or larger round stacks, to remain until taken down for thrashing. The mode of putting up the rice in the ricks or stacks cannot be well made clear by mere description. The execution, however, is excellent, and of the round stacks is admirable. The latter is the best mode, when well performed. The loss or injury of the grain by the exposure before thrashing is not usually considerable, when the ricking or stacking has been well executed."

VOLUNTEER RICE.

"What is called 'Volunteer Rice' is the product of grains scattered at the previous harvest, and which remain on or under the surface of the ground through winter, and come up with the next planted crop. By this long exposure to cold, wet and overflow, as would occur in a state of nature, it seems that the plant is disposed to revert from its artificial character and qualities, as before improved by culture, to its previous natural character and habits. At least this is the only reason that I can conceive for the singular production and qualities of volunteer rice. The plants thus produced, and also the product of their seeds, as generally believed, if saved with the crop and planted, become intermixed with the good seed, have grains with a red interior skin or pellicle instead of white, as of ordinary and good rice. There are 4 different and common kinds of volunteer rice, and even different varieties among each of these, in the lighter or deeper tint of redness, or less or greater thickness of the red pellicle. These 4 kinds of red or volunteer rice, all agreeing in having a red pellicle, are distinguished as follows:

First. White chaffed samples.

Second. With white chaff, having a black point, and spike to one end of the chaff. This is the ordinary and general kind.

Third. With yellow chaff, and having a long point.

The seeds of all these three fall off so easily, as rarely to be harvested and brought to the barn yard; and especially the last, which drops its seed before they seem ripe.

Fourth. With yellow chaff, and like the last, except that the seeds do not fall off in the field, and the grains cannot readily be distinguished from good rice, while the chaff remains unbroken.

"All these, except the last kind, may be distinguished in the field before maturing the seeds, and by using care and labor enough, the plants pulled out and destroyed. But the last kind cannot be known either on the stalk or in the chaff. But with all

the care used to keep land clear of red rice, it continues more or less infested with all the kinds. And though the grain is not the worse in any thing but some slight remains of red tint, so despotic is Fashion in the market, that a crop of rice loses greatly in appreciation if thus showing many grains of volunteer rice. I have been informed that in Italy the admixture is not regarded by the buyers for home consumption. The plants of volunteer rice are usually the most hardy, thrifty and luxuriant of the crop—which helps to confirm the opinion that it is rice approaching more nearly to its natural and hardy character.

"As there are different varieties of cultivated rice, it is probable that to this difference of origin may be owing the different kinds of volunteer rice. A white chaffed rice was formerly generally cultivated, which has been universally substituted by the 'gold seed' or yellow chaffed rice.

"The circumstances stated, require great care to prevent as much as possible the growth, and still more the increase of volunteer rice, which is indeed a very injurious weed to the crop; both because its own product (if it were worth anything,) is mostly lost to the crop, and moreover that what of it is saved serves to contaminate the seed, and lower the quality and market price of the crop for sale."

RESTING AND MANURING RICE LAND.

"The cultivation of rice on embanked marsh lands is generally continued year after year, for a long time, without cessation or rest to the land. But rich and deep as is the alluvial soil, it becomes tired and gradually less productive under this unceasing and unchanged production of rice, and it is found profitable to give rest, and also manure, to the lands when long cultivated. Most planters, who have land enough, give a year's rest at distant intervals, and always find a profit from it, in the increase of the next year's cultivation. It may be doubted whether this increase may not be truly ascribed in part to the alternation or change of growth, as well as to the improvement of fertility. Mr. John H. Allston rests his land (which is clay soil on the Pee Dee) for two years together, keeping it dry during the time; and he finds that this, if done once in 10 or 12 years, will add 50 per cent. to the next crop, or raise it from a previous product of 40 bushels to 60 per acre. Manuring with the rice-straw is also practised with advantage by those planters who have no high-land or other culture, or not enough to require the straw as manure. Dr. Heriot is one of these, and has lately applied his rice-straw to fields thrown out of rice culture for that year, and cultivated (dry, of course,) in cow-peas. This change and manuring he has found to double the next crop of rice. Colonel Belie has, by manuring and rest, made upwards of 90 bushels of (rough) rice to the acre. Both he and Dr. Heriot own and raise on Sandy Island, of which barren sandy soil is their only highland, and on which their manure was before entirely thrown away, or left to rot in waste, without producing the most transient productive power."

6. AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN TEXAS.

The correspondent of the New-York Herald, writing from Brazoria county, Texas, has lately given the following interesting particulars of the agriculture of that State:

"It is true, several are abandoning cotton for sugar, which is a surer and far more profitable crop; but this does not decrease the production of cotton, as many persons with numbers of hands are daily settling here and opening new places. These persons are generally from the old states, (Louisiana excepted.) The people of that state generally are connected with sugar. They go to Matagorda county and Brazoria county, the latter producing three fourths of the sugar made in Texas. But I will state where the sugar estates are situated: there are three or four on the Guadalupe; these ship their sugar down that river into Matagorda or Lavaca bay. About the same number are on the Colorado; the sugar made on these estates finds a good inland market for home consumption. There are seven or eight on Coney Creek; they pass by Matagorda with an expensive land carriage, and at a ruinous cost and loss. Some of them have much sugar; yet in their purgeries and large quantities of molasses, the latter scarcely averages sufficient to defray expenses from such an out-of-the-way place, on such shocking bad roads. I must be understood not to mean all of Coney Creek, as the lower part is better situated; but the upper es-

tates, together with their owners, are in a bad fix. The next estates are in Brazoria county, on the Bernard, or near enough to convey their produce to the river by February, from whence it is taken in vessels of light draught to Galveston. The majority of the estates, however, lie near the Brazos, and on Oyster Creek. Those planters can ship at any time during the season, in large schooners, brigs or steamers, so as to command an early market. There is a bar at the entrance of this river covered with shallow water; but I am told, vessels of seven feet pass over with safety during the time of year when sugar and other staples are being shipped. There is some talk of a company starting a mechanical camel, such as are used on the Neva in Prussia, and on the Zuyder Zee, to convey ships over shoals; and as this bar is but about one hundred yards long, there is little doubt of their answering a good purpose. Those in Europe will take a ship of 1,000 tons, drawing 20 feet water, over a flat, bar or shoal, where there is not more than five or six feet water, at any time in a few hours.

"Some sugar is made on the Trinity; this is easily conveyed to Galveston. Some planters sold their crops in the sugar-house last year, and many would, no doubt, be happy to do so this coming season. I saw one crop sold upon the following terms: Sugar, fair, 4 cents; molasses, superior, \$6 50 per barrel of 45 gallons; syrup, \$8 per barrel. This was, barrels included and put on board the vessel by the planter. I assure you, there is a great opening for Northern merchants to come here and speculate, in the fall.

"Another profitable business might be carried on by sending out vessels with empty barrels to purchase molasses, as barrels are worth \$1 75 to \$2, here, and molasses might be bought cheap where you find your own casks. If things are looked at in a proper light, there is a better opening here for your traders than many would suppose, as the sugars of Texas are equal in quality to the best made in Louisiana. The last year's crop was about 7,500 tons, and molasses, with syrup, 800,000 gallons. We may safely estimate the coming crop, which promises well, at 12,000 tons of sugar and upwards of 1,000,000 gallons of molasses.

"I must explain why the quantity of molasses does not increase in a like ratio with the sugar. As the lands, which are rather too rich for cane, become worn, the canes produce more sugar and less molasses; another reason is, some of the planters are erecting apparatus to convert their molasses into sugar and sugar-house molasses. This is an improvement of vast importance.

"There are seven or eight steam mills and other machinery going up, to be used for the coming crop. One of the largest refineries in the United States is also in the course of erection on the Brazos—it will be completed by October. At Velasco, at the mouth of the same river, is also a large beef-curing establishment, nearly completed. Its apparatus is very costly. It is an improvement upon Dr. Lardner's vacuum process, and it is anticipated they will cure one hundred beeves daily.

"No state would be better intersected than this, if all the plank-roads, railways and canals were in active operation, which their projectors have laid down on paper; but the capital is wanting to build them. As regards climate and soil, past years have proved the former to suit sugar culture to a T. As to the latter, analysis proves it to be equal to the Delta of the Nile.

"Although the planters here have more expenses in shipping their crops, and are little further from the market than the Louisianians, nevertheless, they are enabled to cope with them, as the amount of capital required to start a sugar plantation here is not half what it requires in Louisiana. The Texas planter can produce more to the acre and to the hand. The feeding of his negroes does not cost half as much, and his team is procured and maintained at one-third the expense."

7. HOGS KILLED IN THE WEST.

From the best information he could obtain, by personal inspection and otherwise, Mr. L. Caldwell has published in the Lafayette, Indiana, Courier of February 28th, a statement of the number of hogs slaughtered in the west during the past season. His aggregates are as follows: Ohio, 523,755; Kentucky, 198,000; Indiana, 428,575; Illinois, 268,100; Mississippi River, 252,900; Missouri river, es't, 75,000; Cumberland river, es't, 100,000. Other small points overlooked, 25,000. Grand total, 1,871,330.

6.—GRAINGER'S SONG OF THE CANE FIELDS.

In our August number, p. 243, we gave a short sketch of the history of that curious work on the sugar cane, written in the last century, in poetry, by Mr. Grainger. To the extracts then furnished, we add several others, for the gratification of our readers, reminding them again that the author's experience extended only to the British West Indies.

HUSBANDRY IMPROVED.

Planter, Improvement is the child of Time;
What your sires knew not, ye, their offspring,
know;
But hath your art received Perfection's stamp?
Thou canst not say.—Unprejudiced, then learn
Of ancient modes to doubt, and new to try;
And if Philosophy, with Wisdom, deign
Thee to enlighten with useful lore,
Fair fame and riches will award thy toil.
Then say, ye swains, whom wealth and fame
aspire,
Might not the plough, that rolls on rapid
wheels,
Save no small labor to the hoe-arm'd gang?
By Cere's son, unfailing crops secure;
Though neither dung nor fallowing lent their
aid!

NEGROES AT WORK.

Thy negro train (in linen lightly wrapp'd),
Who, now that painted Iris girds the sky,
(Aeriel arch, which fancy loves to stride!)
Disperse, all-jocund, o'er the long-hoed land.
The bundles some untie; the wither'd leaves
Others strip artful off, and careful lay,
Twice one junk, distant in the amplest bed.
O'er these, with hasty hoe, some lightly spread
The mounded interval, and smooth the trench:
Well pleased, the master swain reviews their
toil,
And rolls, in fancy, many a full fraught cask.
So, when the shield was forged for Pelus' son,
The swarthy Cyclops shared the important
task:
With bellows, some revived the seeds of fire;
Some, gold, and brass, and steel together fused
In the vast furnace, while a chosen few,
In equal measures, lifting their bare arms,
Inform the mass; and, hissing in the wave,
Temper the glowing orb; their sire beholds,
Amazed, the wonders of his fusile art.

STRIPPING THE CANE.

And now thy cane's first blades their verdure
lose,
And hang their idle heads. Be these stripp'd
off:
So shall fresh sportive airs their joints em-
brace,
And by their dalliance give the sap to rise;
But, O, beware! let no unskillful hand
The vivid foliage tear: their channel'd spouts,
Well pleased, the watery nutriment convey,
With filial duty, to the thirsty stem:
And, spreading wide their reverential arms,
Defend their parent from solstitial skies.

ENEMIES TO THE CANE FIELDS.

Destructive, on the upland sugar groves,
The monkey nation preys: from rocky heights,
In silent parties, they descend by night,
And posting watchful sentinels to warn
When hostile steps approach, with gambols,
they
Pour o'er the cane grove. Luckless he to
whom
That land pertains! in evil hour, perhaps,
And thoughtless of to-morrow, on a die
He hazards millions; or, perhaps, reclines
On luxury's soft lap, the pest of wealth;

And, inconsiderate, deems his Indian crops
Will amply her insatiate wants supply.
From these insidious droles (peculiar pest
Of Lianulga's hills) wouldst thou defend
Thy waving wealth? In traps put not thy trust,
However baited; treble every watch,
And well with arms provide them; faithful
dogs,
Of nose sagacious, on their footsteps wait.
With these attack the predatory bands;
Quickly the unequal conflict they decline,
And, chattering, fling their ill-got spoils away.
So, when, of late, in numerous Gallic hosts,
Fierce, wanton, cruel, did by stealth invade
The peaceful American's domains,
While desolation mark'd their faithless rout,
No sooner Albion's martial sons advanced,
Than the gay dastards to their foests fled,
And left their spoils and tomahawks behind.
Nor with less waste, the whisker'd vermin
race,

A countless calm, despoil the lowland cane.
These to destroy, while commerce hoists the
sail,
Loose rocks abound, or tangling bushes bloom,
What planter knows?—Yet prudence may re-
duce.
Encourage, then, the breed of savage cats,
Nor kill the winding snake; thy fowls they eat.
Thus, on the mangrove banks of Guyaquil,
Child of the rocky desert, sealike stream,
With studious care, the American preserves
The gallinazo, else that sealike stream
(Whence traffic pours her bounties on man-
kind)

Dread alligators would alone possess.

WORK IN THE CANE FIELDS.

Some rending, of their sapless burden ease
The yellow pointed canes, (whose height ex-
ceeds
A mounted trooper, and whose clammy round
Measures two inches full) and near the root
Lops the stem off, which quivers in their
hands
With fond impatience; soon its branchy spires
(Food to thy cattle) it resigns; and soon
Its tender prickly tops, with eyes thick set,
To load with future crops thy long-hoed land.
These, with their green, their pliant branches
bound,
(For not a part of this amazing plant
But serves some useful purpose,) charge the
gang:
Not laziness declines this easy toil;
E'en lameness from its leafy pallet crawls,
To join the favor'd gang. What of the cane
Remains, and much the largest part remains,
Cut into junks, a yard in length, and tied
In small light bundles, load the broad-wheel'd
wain,
The mules crook-harness'd, and the sturdier
crew
With sweet abundance. As on Lincoln plains,
(Ye plains of Lincoln sound your Dyer's
praise!)
When the loved snow-white flocks are numer-
ous penn'd;
The senior swains, with sharpen'd shears, cut
off
The fleecy vestment; others stir the tar;

And some impress, upon their captives' sides,
Their master's cipher; while the infant throng
Strive by the horns to hold the struggling ram,
Proud of their prowess. Nor meanwhile the
 jest
Light bandied round, but innocent of ill,
Nor choral song, are wanting; echo rings.

SUGAR BOILING.

Thy foaming coppers well with fuel feed;
For a clear, strong, continued fire improves
Thy muscovado's color and its grain.
Yet vehement heat, protracted, will consume
Thy vessels, whether from the martial mine
Or from thine ore, bright Venus, they are
 drawn;

Or hammer, or hot fusion, give them form.
If prudence guides thee, then, thy stores shall
 hold

Of well-sized vessels a complete supply;
For every hour thy boilers cease to skim
(Now cancer reddens with the solar ray)
Defeats thy honest purposes of gain.
Nor small the risk (when piety, or chance,
Force thee from boiling to desist) to leave
Thy heated furnace with the gelid stream.
The chymist knows, when all dissolving fire
Bids the metalline ore abruptly flow.

What dread explosions, and what dire effects
A few cold drops of water will produce,
Uncautious, on the novel fluid thrown.
For grain and color, wouldst thou win, my
 friend.

At every curious mart, the constant palm?
O'er all thy works let cleanliness preside,
Child of frugality, and, as the skum
Thick mantles o'er the boiling wave, do thou
The skum that mantles carefully remove.
From bloating drops, from pulmonic ails,
Wouldst thou defend thy boilers (prime of
 slaves)

For days, for nights, for weeks, for months, in-
 volved

In the warm vapor's all relaxing steam;
Thy boiling-house be louty; all stops
Open, and pervious to the tropic breeze;
Whose cool perfusion, woo'd through many a
 grate,

Dispers the steam, and gives the lungs to play.
The skill'd in chemio boast of modern arts,
Know from experiments, the sire of Truth,
In many a plant that oil, and acid juice,
And ropy mucilage, by nature live;
These, envious, stop the much desired em-
 brace

Of the essential salts, though coction bid
The aqueous particles to mount in air.

* * * * *
While flows the juice mellifluent from the
 cane,
Grudge not, my friend, to let thy slaves, each
 morn,

But chief the sick and young, at setting day,
Themselves regale with oft repeated draughts
Of tepid nectar; so shall health and strength
Confirm thy negroes, and make labor light.
While flame thy chimneys, while thy coppers
 foam,

How blithe, how jocund the plantation smiles!
By day, by night, resounds the choral song
Of glad barbarity; serene, the sun
Shines not intensely hot; the trade-wind
 blows;

How sweet, how silken is its noontide breath!
While to far climes the fell destroyer, Death,
Wings his dark flight. Then seldom pray for
 rain;

Rather for cloudless days thy prayers prefer;
For, if the skies too frequently relent,
Crude flows the cane juice, and will long elude
The boiler's wariest skill; thy canes will
 spring

To an unthrifty loftiness; or, weigh'd
Down by their load, (ambition's curse,) decay.
Encourage thou thy boilers; much depends
On their skill'd efforts. If too soon they strike,
Ere all the watery particles have fled,

Or lime sufficient granulate the juice,
In vain the thickening liquor is effused,
A heterogenous, an uncertain mass,
And never in thy coolers to condense.

Or, planter, if the coaction they prolong
Beyond its stated time; the viscous wave
Will in huge flinty masses crystallize,
Which forceful fingers scarce can crumble
 down;

And which with its molasses ne'er will part;
Yet this, fast dripping in nectareous drops,
Not only betters what remains, but, when
With art fermented, yields a noble wine,
Than which nor Gallia, nor the Indian clime,

Where rolls the Ganges, can a nobler show.
So misers in their coffers lock that gold
Which, if allow'd at liberty to roam,
Would better them, and benefit mankind.
In the last coppers, when the embrowning
 wave

With sudden fury swells, some grease, un-
 mix'd,

The foaming tumult sudden will compose,
And force to union the divided grain.
So when two swarms in airy battle join,
The winged heroes heap the bloody field,
Until some dust, thrown upward in the sky
Quell the wild conflict, and sweet peace re-
 store.

False Gallia's sons, that hoe the ocean isles,
Mix with their sugar loads of worthless sand,
Fraudful their weight of sugar to increase.
Far be such guiles from Britain's honest
 swains.

Such arts, a while, the unwary may surprise,
And benefit the impostor; but, ere long,
The skilful buyer will the fraud detect.
And, with abhorrence, reprobate the name.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1. MANUFACTURES IN THE SOUTH.

We ask the attentive consideration of the reader to the following extract from an able editorial in the last Dry-Goods Reporter:

"At the present moment, among the producers of cloth in those sections, namely, the Northern and Middle States, which have hitherto been regarded as the chief seats of manufacturing industry, there appears to be, and doubtless is, something less of

that prosperity which, upon an average throughout the whole country, is unusually marked. The value of raw material has risen disproportionately to the price of fabrics, and although the demand for the latter is good, the supply is more than equal to it; that is to say, notwithstanding that raw material is very high and manufacturers complain of inadequate prices, they nevertheless buy and work up a larger quantity of raw material than ever before, in the face of enhanced importations of rival productions. This is an anomaly which puzzles many; but if we reflect upon the causes which are in operation to stimulate competition, we arrive at something like a solution. We may reflect that political causes in Europe have operated to keep goods cheap in Lancashire, and by so doing, to promote large exports to this side of the Atlantic, at a moment when three incentives to manufacturing rivalry have acted upon the South and West. These are, first, abundance of capital; second, the influence of the improvements in steam-power and machinery emancipating factory labor from water-power localities; and lastly, political motives.

"The South has abundance of capital, evinced in the fact that the crop thus far delivered, say 2,000,000 bales, has realised \$104,000,000, against \$80,000,000 for 2,620,000 bales last year; that is to say, a quantity diminished by one-fourth lessening to the same extent the expenses of freight, packing, weighing, etc., while rates of exchange are high, drawn against high values, have enabled the South, as a whole, probably to realise \$30,000,000 more money from this crop than from the last. With these means factories have so multiplied, that not short of 175,000 spindles are now in operation in the cotton states, requiring 100,000 bales of cotton per annum, and every mail brings advices of some new one going up. This rivalry affects the old-established factories the more that the new factories are all armed with the newest improved machinery, and will produce at probably 20 per cent. better advantage. The competition from this quarter is every way calculated to diminish the old margin between the cost of raw material and that of fabrics; therefore those old concerns which had reached the minimum margin at which they could work, must shut up shop and give place to more competent operators."

2. SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.—GEORGIA.

THE Albany (Ga.) *Patriot* of the 11th inst. gives the following description of the factories in the city of Columbus in that State:

"The Coweta Falls Manufacturing Company's establishment occupies a large brick building, containing 2,500 spindles, which make from 1,400 to 1,800 lbs. of thread per day; 44 looms, making 1,800 yards of heavy osnaburgs per day; 24 cotton cards, 3 wool cards, and one wool jack. They also manufacture a considerable quantity of linseys, which are more profitable than osnaburgs and yarns. They employ from 115 to 120 boys and girls, from twelve years old upwards. Average wages—Superintendent, \$1,000 per annum; overseers, \$30 to \$60 per month; weavers, \$15; carders, \$8; spinners, \$7.50. Power—One of Rich's centre vent wheels, five feet diameter, capable of carrying as much more machinery. Profits on investment 10 to 15 per cent.

Near this establishment is Carter's Factory—a large brick building, six stories high; cost, \$10,200; privilege 3000 calculated for 200 looms and 10,000 spindles. Estimated value when completed, \$100,000; will employ from 800 to 1000 hands.

Not far from this building, is the Howard Manufacturing Company's establishment. The building is of brick, 50 by 125 feet, six stories. It contains 5,000 spindles, 103 looms—40 more to be added. Entire cost \$100,000. They manufacture 15,000 yards of cotton osnaburgs, sheetings and shirtings per week, and 400 to 500 lbs. thread; employ 100 hands from twelve years old upwards, one-third of whom are males; wages from 12 to 75 cents per day for common hands; assistants, \$1 to \$1.25; overseers, from \$2 to \$2.50; superintendent, \$900 per year. Consumption, 1,200 bales cotton. Past profits, under some difficulties, have varied from \$34 to \$100 per day; estimated future profits, 20 per cent. on investment. There is an extensive machine shop connected with this manufactory. We examined some bales of cloth made by this establishment, and found it of a very superior quality. The hands, male and female, had a general appearance of cleanliness, health and contentment. The proprietors of the manufactories have made arrangements for preaching, Sunday schools, and a daily free schools, for the operatives and their families.

We next visited Winters' Palace Mills. This is a large brick edifice, of six stories,

occupied by a machine shop, four runs of mill stones—two for wheat and two for corn—with all the necessary flouring apparatus, capable of turning out from 80 to 100 barrels of flour per day. The entire cost was stated to be some \$50,000. Ten thousand bushels of wheat had recently been purchased in Baltimore, and was being made into flour at this mill.

Near this establishment, is one which is rightly termed "Variety Works"—sawing lumber, planing, making tubs, pails, bedsteads, window blinds, sashes, &c., all by machinery adapted to these purposes. This is doubtless one of the most profitable establishments in Columbus.

These several establishments are situated on the east bank of the river, and are propelled by water, taken from the great conduit, which has been constructed of stone, to receive and retain the water of the Chattahoochee river at a sufficient elevation to afford the necessary power. The head of water thus furnished, is from 10 to 14 feet. This conduit is calculated for supplying the power for many other manufactories.

There are two iron foundries in Columbus, which turn out a large amount of castings and machinery for mills, steamboats, &c. They employ a steam engine.

The City Mills.—In the upper part of Columbus, is a large wood structure, occupied by four sets of mill stones, two for flour and two for corn—and extensive flouring works.

On the river above the city, are several establishments, which we had not the pleasure of visiting; among them the Rock Island Paper Manufacturing Company. Capital employed, \$40,000, to be increased to \$45,000, to complete the machinery. They now manufacture 1,000 lbs. when the machinery is completed. Cost of rags and other materials, from 1 to 3½ cents per lb. Price of paper, from 10 to 12½ cents per lb. Employ 7 girls, 2 boys, 13 men, and 1 teamster. Wages—Girls, \$8 per month; foreman, \$100; machinist, \$60; two operatives, \$40 each. Main building, 75 by 36 feet, three stories, besides finishing room, warehouse, &c.

In all cases where we have given the wages, the parties employed board and lodge themselves.

3. OUR DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

The United States Journal says: "The value of domestic cotton manufactures, including white, printed and colored goods, exported from the United States, in each of the past twenty-two years, was as follows:

1828,	\$1,010,232	1839,	\$2,975,033
1829,	1,250,457	1840,	3,549,607
1830,	1,218,183	1841,	3,122,546
1831,	1,126,313	1842,	2,770,690
1832,	1,229,574	1843,	3,233,550
1833,	2,532,517	1844,	2,898,780
1834,	2,084,994	1845,	4,327,923
1835,	2,858,681	1846,	3,545,481
1836,	2,255,739	1847,	4,082,522
1837,	2,831,475	1848,	5,718,209
1838,	3,758,755	1849,	4,421,091

"In less than twenty years, the increase in exports has been more than 400 per cent.; while it must also be borne in mind, that with this great increase in exportation there was all the time a far greater increase in domestic consumption, corresponding with the increase in our population. In fact, nine-tenths of the goods manufactured are consumed by our own people, and the manufacturer depends entirely upon the demand at home."

4. MOBILE COTTON FACTORY.

The extensive buildings, for the future operations of this company, are located four and a half miles from the city, on Bayou Durand—commonly called Dog River—nine miles from its entrance into Mobile Bay. Steamboats can land freight and receive it within fifty yards of the factory. This location was preferred to one in the city, because, being in the pine woods, all danger from epidemics, to which the city is sometimes subject, was avoided—thus enabling the company to continue their business through the year; and it also removes those engaged in the factory from city influences—which are not always favorable to good order and industry. For general

health, no more favorable location can be found any where. After all the improvements contemplated are completed, "Fulton," the name adopted, will prove one of the pleasantest villages in the State.

The factory building is built in the most substantial manner, of hard-burned brick, and appears to combine, in the design, every thing necessary for a complete cotton factory. The main building is 182 feet long by 54 wide—110½ feet three stories, and 71½ only two stories. There are 195 windows and 4,750 lights in the house. The roof is well covered with slate, laid on sheathing, tongued and grooved, and as tight as a floor. It is fronted by a square tower four stories high, 17 by 18 feet and 70 feet to the top of the belfry. The brick consumed amounted to 750,000. Cost of factory, \$27,000. The three story building will be occupied—the first by 176 looms—the second by 40 carding machines—the third by 5,040 spindles—with such other "fixings" as may be necessary; the work, &c., &c., to be transposed from one room to the other by machinery. A large water tank is built in the third story, with hose to carry water to all parts of the building. The water is forced into the tank by the engine. The two story building is appropriated for the engine room and machine shop on the first floor, and the second for a sizing room. The machinery of the mill, which is just being opened and put in place, looks to be of the most approved kind and was got up by the Mattewan Company in the very best style. When ready for work, the mill will require 200 operatives—three-fourths females—and will manufacture, when in full operation, 6,000 yards of yard-wide sheeting per day.

The motive power consists of two engines of 75 horse power each, low pressure, twenty inch cylinders, four feet stroke, forty revolutions per minute; four boilers, thirty-six feet long, which are located in an adjoining room to that which contains the engine. The smoke stack is eighty-two feet high, ten feet square at the base and five by six at the top, and located thirty feet from the mill. The smoke is taken from the boilers to the chimney under ground.—(*Advertiser*.)

5. AUGUSTA (GEORGIA) TRADE.

There is no city in the Union with more enterprising merchants than Augusta, when her population is taken into consideration; and there is no city in the Union where better prices are paid for produce, or goods sold at lower profits. Her merchants are proverbial as business men, and they act upon the correct principle of quick sales and small profits. If they can see what they call a "margin" between this and other markets, they are liberal purchasers; but frequently they figure ahead, and purchase *with the hope* of finding a "margin" elsewhere. There has hardly been a week during the past season when cotton did not bring as high a price in this market as in either Charleston or Savannah, and such will continue to be the case. Some planters we know have shipped their cotton to Charleston and Savannah by way of trial, but they have nearly all come "bock" again, and are no doubt satisfied that "to go further is but to fare worse."

All our merchants ask is a trial—they now have on hand good stocks of goods—and offer them at moderate profits; and if buyers can do better elsewhere, they will not look to their interests if they do not do so.

Those who wish to give our market a trial would do well to examine our advertising columns.

6. SALUDA FACTORY, S. C.—NEGRO LABOR.

We had the gratification recently of visiting this factory, situated on the Saluda River, near Columbia, and of inspecting its operations. It is on the slave-labor, or anti free-soil system; no operators in the establishment but blacks. The superintendent and overseers are white, and of great experience in manufacturing. They are principally from the manufacturing districts of the North, and although strongly prejudiced on their first arrival at the establishment against African labor, from observation and more experience they all testify to their equal efficiency, and great superiority in many respects. So as not to act precipitately, the experiment of African labor was first tested in the spinning department; since which, the older spinners have been transferred to the weaving-room. They commenced in that department on the 1st of July, and are now turning out as many yards to the loom as was performed under the older system. A weaver from Lowell has charge of this department, and she reports that, while there is full as much work done by the blacks, they

are much more attentive to the condition of their looms. They all appear pleased with the manipulations on which they are employed, and are thus affording to the South the best evidence that, when the channels of agriculture are choked, the manufacturing of our own productions will open new channels of profitable employment for our slaves. The resources of the South are great, and it should be gratifying to all who view these facts with the eye of a statesman and philanthropist, that the sources of profitable employment and support to our rapidly-increasing African labor are illimitable, and must remove all motives for emigration to other countries. By an enlightened system of internal improvements, making all parts of our state accessible, and by a judicious distribution of our labor, South Carolina may more than double her productive slave labor, and not suffer from too dense a population.

7. COTTON FACTORY IN MISSISSIPPI.

CHOCTAW, MI., June 4, 1850.

Our mill is located ten miles south of Greensboro', in a poor, healthy neighborhood; fine water, good society, churches, schools, &c. We have but one grog-shop within seven miles of us, and that will probably not last long.

Our building is made of wood, 108 feet long, 48 wide, and three stories high. We are now running about 800 spindles, 10 cards, 12 looms, and all the accompanying necessary machinery for spinning and weaving. Owing to the high price of cotton we have stopped our looms. We have 500 spindles and five cards more, not finished; we shall probably get them in operation for the next crop. We carry on a machine shop in which we make every variety of machinery for carding and spinning. Our looms are built by Messrs. Rogers, Kechum & Grovanon, of Patterson, N. J. They are heavy and substantial, and are built for making heavy Linsey and Osnaburgs, such as are most used in the South. I think that companies in this state intending to embark in the manufacturing business, would do well to call and see our machinery before buying elsewhere. We have just completed the finest flour mill in this state, or equal to any in the South. We will show flour with the St. Louis or any other mill North or South.

We use a large fine Simple Engine, made by Messrs. Thurston, Green & Co., Providence. It is admired by all visitors for its great capacity and simplicity. It is run by a negro engineer, who also serves as fireman, who had no acquaintance with engines until he took hold of this. We have a double cylinder wool card that cards the wool twice as well as most of the country cards that have only one, and will turn off two hundred pounds of rolls a day, for which we charge 8 c. a pound.

8. COTTON FACTORIES IN ALABAMA.

We seldom take up a paper published in the southern and western states of the Union, that does not contain some new development of their manufacturing industry. In a brief notice of the progress of Alabama in that direction, the *Tuscaloosa Observer* remarks:

"We were shown last week some samples of Cottonades, Gingham, Checks, and Osnaburgs, colored and plain, made at the factory of Patton, Donegan & Co., Huntsville, which for quality and durability would compare with similar goods made in the manufacturing towns of the North. The colored goods were excellent, and were we not assured of the contrary, we should have pronounced them Eastern goods.

"The factory at Florence, owned by Martin, Weekly & Co., is doing a thrifty business. It works 46 looms—turning 1,600 spindles, and produces 80,000 yards of cloth per week. Besides this large amount of cloth, it manufactures also 6,000 dozen of thread per week. The weekly consumption of cotton is about 6,000 lbs., averaging 750 bales of cotton per year.

"As an instance of the prosperity of factories in this region, a new one is about being established on the same stream, on the opposite side, which, it is calculated, will consume 40 bales of cotton per week.

"The factory in this city is about increasing its number of looms. At this time it works only 40, which are chiefly employed in manufacturing the four qualities of goods. In a few weeks the present number of looms will be increased to 72. The cloths made at this factory are in high repute and meet with ready sales."

9. SOUTHERN GRANITE. No. III.

BY A CHARLESTON WORKING MAN.

We have now come to a consideration of the means of conveying the excellent building stone to be found in the vicinity of Columbia to Charleston, where it is at all times in great demand for building purposes. Whether water carriage can be advantageously resorted to, we will not at present undertake to determine; but it is not unlikely that this mode of conveyance may be availed of beneficially and economically. The South Carolina Railroad is the great avenue to which we confidently look, and upon which we must at present rely, for developing this important branch of industry. The President and Directors of this Company, alive as they are to every matter of state interest, are disposed, we feel assured, to render every reasonable facility, and we doubt not they will be willing to transport granite from Columbia to Charleston at the rate of two dollars per ton, or even less. A much lower rate than this for heavy freight has been reached on some of the railways in Pennsylvania and elsewhere. On those roads, the price for transportation, for coal, is usually equivalent to \$1.50 per ton, for 100 miles; but in some cases, where canal competition has been encountered, it is carried for \$1.12½ per ton.

At \$2 per ton we think it would be a profitable business for the road, and would pay quite as well as a large proportion of the freight which now passes over it. Cotton is frequently brought from Hamburg to Charleston at 50 cents per bale. The Carolina bales from that point average about 350 pounds; but by far the larger proportion sent from there, probably three-fourths, are Georgia bales, which average over 450 pounds—enough over that average probably to make the average weight of all the cotton bales coming thence 450 pounds. Assuming this as the correct average, the freight, at 50 cents per bale, gives one-ninth of a cent per pound. A ton of granite, of 2,240 pounds, at \$2 per ton, gives a fraction over one-eleventh of a cent per pound. But any number of tons of granite can be brought over the road at less expense to the Company than the same weight of cotton, or any other light freight, because it occupies less car-room. In ascertaining the cost of freight to the carriers on railroads, one very important element of calculation is the space occupied; and as a general rule, the relative friction to be overcome by the propelling power may be determined pretty nearly by taking into account the number of car-wheels set in motion by any given quantity of freight. With a rail heavy enough for any weight to run upon it without injury, concentration of the load is the most effectual economy, and leads to the use of powerful locomotives.

It certainly results in a saving in the wear and tear of cars and car-wheels as well as steam-power. Let us suppose that a full loaded car of granite will weigh five times as much as the same loaded with cotton, the wheels of the granite cars being of sufficient strength, and then consider the quantum of propelling power necessary in each case. Five times the number of wheels will be required for the cotton, and consequently a great proportional increase of friction must arise, which can only be overcome by augmenting the propelling power. Besides, in accordance with a generally understood law of locomotion, the force necessary to propel a train of cars, of any specified weight, must be increased as the train is lengthened. A car distant from the engine requires more power to propel it than one of the same weight nearer to it, and at sudden curves in a road the increase of burthen arising from length of train is very sensibly felt. We may also keep in view that lateral motion of the cars, which forms so serious an impediment to progress, and which increases in proportion as the car is distant from the engine—a fact which is readily appreciated by observant travellers on passenger trains in rapid motion.

Another consideration may be presented in this connexion, which, whilst it may render the conveyance of granite more profitable to the carriers, will introduce a class of freight, consisting of produce of light weight, and comparatively inferior value, which is at present driven from the road by the necessarily high rates which are charged. Hay and blades, and such like bulky but light articles, of small cost, which are now raised in large quantities along the line, and which would be much increased if they could be sent to market at a moderate cost, and after awhile make us independent of northern supplies, might thus be introduced. The price of carrying hay from Richland cannot under present circumstances be reduced with propriety, and yet the minimum rate be now 20 cents per 100 pounds, which is about 50 per cent. of

the value of the hay as it lies in the fields, is sufficiently onerous to drive such freight from the road.

On the iron of the South Carolina Railroad, it would not, probably, be prudent to run cars laden with granite slabs to the extent of more than a foot or two from the floors of the cars, and the vacant space above these layers might be advantageously appropriated to this description of light freight. With these views we have formed the estimate that granite from Columbia, at \$2 per ton, will pay the Company at least as well as cotton from Hamburg at 50 cents per bale. We have entered into this calculation in anticipation of the doubts and difficulties which will be set up by the thousand croakers amongst us, who are ever ready to predict the failure of any enterprise that is proposed or started in the state. We must repudiate and disgrace this contemptible class of moping wisacres by falsifying their solemn forebodings in the displays and results of energetic movements. Whatever any other people can do, we can do in South Carolina. We are not wanting in any of the elements of enterprise, but the disposition to engage in them is unfortunately lacking. A stupid and vicious public opinion has heretofore tended to push our young men into the learned professions, or the proprietorship of planting interests, as the only avenues to honorable success in life, and in consequence we have but few of those intellectual, well-educated, scientific mechanics growing up around us, who are necessary to give impulse to our resources.

But a beginning has been made. Already are the cotton lords of Lowell, who have grown rich on the bounties of the federal government, looking with jealousy and anxiety to the development of Southern skill in the manufacture of cotton. The factories of South Carolina and Georgia now find a ready sale for their fabrics, even in Northern markets, at such prices as enable them to declare good dividends; and if, in this early stage of our experience, we can do so well—well enough to enable the Charleston and Graniteville factories to take the premiums offered at the recent Philadelphia Fair, for the best goods of the descriptions made by those factories respectively—what may we not expect when, by the more general introduction and judicious organization of *slave labor*, the best and cheapest factory labor in the world, we shall manifest the ability which belongs to us to manufacture cotton more cheaply than any other people. Slave labor may be used in the quarrying and working of granite as well as any other. It is a plain and simple business, almost entirely physical in its character, and requiring the exercise of but little intellect, except on the part of the overseers or directors of a quarry—who, of course, should be men of intelligence and inventive genius. Every quarry has its peculiarities, and in each particular instance, mechanical constructions and contrivances, adapted to the location, and often of novel character, will be required. With the aid of a very few experienced quarry laborers, (and these we presume may now be found in or about Columbia, as it is not entirely an unknown mystery there—the Charlotte Railroad Company having erected some of their small bridges near the town of quarried granite,) a competent foreman could drill a large force of white or black laborers in a very short time. Even the whiskey-drinking, potatoe-raising, charcoal burning Sand-hillers, have quite intellect enough for the delightful employment of hammering granite, and if in this way they can be induced to “do the State some service,” it will be a matter of profound congratulation. Now let us see what our competitors can do in the way of freight, and how they are circumstanced with regard to quarry labor. Careful inquiry as to the cost of bringing granite to Charleston results in the belief, that the freight of it from Boston, or from the shipping point, (which at Quincy is nearer to the quarries than at any other locations we know of,) including the cost of cartage or truckage from the depot to the vessel, cannot be contracted for at less than \$24 per ton.

This difference alone, of fifty cents per ton, would amount, in the quantity necessary for the new Custom House, to nearly or quite ten thousand dollars, whilst the additional expense of transportation from the Northern quarries to those points of shipment, would constitute in effect, by just so much as its amount, an additional bonus to the quarries here. The expense, to the Quincy quarriers, of delivering their stone on shipboard may be more nearly estimated when it is known that it must either be hauled on trucks, by teams of horses, a distance of seven miles to Boston, or be conveyed first by the railroad constructed there, for the purpose of conveying granite, a distance of two and a half miles, to the landing on Milton River, whence it must be carried on lighters a distance of about seven miles to the vessels in Boston harbor. It is now the practice at such of the Quincy quarries as are not owned by the proprietors of the railroad, to haul their granite to Boston on the common roads—the

use of the railroad being reserved by the owners of it for the requirements of their own quarries. It is possible, but barely so, and by no means probable, that the freight from some of the Northern shipping points can be had at less than \$2.50 per ton; and we may safely venture to assert that under no circumstances can it be done for less than \$2 per ton, which latter price will, as we have already intimated, probably be the maximum charge on our railroad for conveying it to the same point. In Massachusetts and the East generally, during a large portion of the year, the intense cold which prevails, and the deep snows which cover the earth, prevent altogether the out-door working of quarrymen, and even with the protection of sheds and enclosures, the pinching temperature incapacitates the workmen to do much more than half work. Here our delightful climate presents no such obstacles to out-door labor.

We remark further, that even white laborers can be subsisted much better and cheaper at the South than in any of the granite-producing Northern states; also, that with a judicious combination of white and black operatives, we are independent of those strikes for higher wages, so common at the North, and which in many cases have been the ruin of large contractors. As to the time of sending our granite down, it may be arranged with reference to the convenience of the Company, and they will thus be enabled to employ their motive power with more regularity the year round, by freighting the stone when there is no press of cotton or other freight. Another item of comparison is found in the difference of cost of suitable sites for quarrying here and at the North. Eligible situations for this business readily command in the Northern states large sums—here immense beds of granite have yet to find purchasers at any price; but we hope the time is at hand when, by the enterprise of some spirited citizen, your holders of granite domains will be waked up some fine morning with the announcement that their now useless possessions are eagerly sought after, and have at length found a place in the world's inventory of things valuable. Granite will find a considerable market in Charleston at all times. Store fronts of this material are now in common use, and are continually called for, besides lintels, door-sills, fence sills, posts, door-steps, *et cetera*, of which a large number may be sold. But to the Custom House we desire again to direct attention, presenting as it does a splendid opportunity of commencing the granite business. It will require an immense quantity of stone, and there will be a sufficient amount of profit, in prospective, to induce men of substance and capacity to embark in the business. In the private letter hereinbefore alluded to, we ventured the following assertions: "We want granite for the new Custom House—I suppose at least \$200,000 worth. Here is a chance for some enterprising Richlander to make a fortune of at least \$50,000, and still outbid the Northern contractors." These were made at a venture, and based only upon a vague idea of the extent and character of the building; but now, with more definite information before us, we proceed to demonstrate that those hasty guesses are singularly near the truth; at least we shall show this to be the case with regard to the quantity of stone, and we see no reason for abandoning the prediction of profit, provided the matter is taken in hand by energetic and competent persons. Just think of it—every square foot of granite worth almost half a dollar, in its rough state, after the comparatively trifling work of quarrying it! In our next and final letter, we shall estimate the probable extent of the new Custom House, as nearly as the information at present within our reach will permit an approximation to it.

10. INFLUENCE OF MANUFACTURES ON THE GROWTH OF CITIES.

CANNELTON, INDIANA.—We are indebted to Hamilton Smith, Esq., the distinguished manufacturer of the West, and the man who is doing more at this moment for advancing the manufacturing and general prosperity of this great region than perhaps any other in the nation, for a copy of his most elaborate pamphlet, prepared by request, upon the mineral, coal, and manufacturing facilities of Cannelton, Indiana. We have examined it with much interest, as many of the particulars included have from time to time been presented by the author through our Review, and as there are many more which are deserving of the widest circulation and study. The attention of capitalists in particular should be directed to this quarter, which promises them the most prolific returns. Extensive cotton factories are in construction, and the coal mines are in control of a company who solicit capital. The great mill of which a

wood-cut representation is given in the pamphlet is intended for 10,800 spindles and 372 looms; it is 287 feet long and 65 feet wide; towers 106 feet high. The attic (220 feet by 40 feet) is lighted by windows in the gable-ends. Corner-stone laid May 21, 1849.

"This town was first laid out in 1835, and settled by colliers under the supervision of Rhodes and McLane. In 1836 the American Cannel Coal Company was formed, which owes its origin to the late Gen. Seth Hunt, of New-Hampshire; a man whose intelligence was only equalled by the energy of his character, and who, in connection with Messrs. Hobart, Williams and Russell, then wealthy capitalists of Boston, purchased a large tract of land, consisting of about 7000 acres, and made several entries to the coal strata. The capital stock of this company is \$500,000. From 400,000 to 500,000 bushels of coal are mined here per annum. The site of this town is on a bend of the Ohio, and embraces over 1000 acres between the river and the coal hills. The landing is very fine. The principal improvements and growth of Cannelton have taken place within the last twelve months. Its population is now somewhere between 1200 and 1500 persons.

"A large first class hotel, containing over seventy sleeping-rooms, is now being constructed, and will be ready for occupation by the last of May. Besides the saw and grist-mill of J. C. Porter & Co., referred to on the map, the cotton-mill company have already in operation a fine steam planing-mill, and connected with the same power, several circular saws, turning-lathes, etc. The establishment of Mr. Z. W. Merrithew, for the manufacture of shaved shingles, is also worthy of notice. A short distance above Castlebury Creek, and upon the bank of the river, Messrs. Ross, Talbott & Co. are erecting a large saw and flouring-mill. Just below the mouth of Dozier Creek Mr. Thomas M. Smith is about building another saw-mill. A building has already been erected by Messrs. Smith & Badger for a foundry, but is not yet in operation. The tin, copper and sheet-iron establishment of J. S. Thayer & Brother is well known to the community. Recently our friend Beacon has commenced the manufacture of brick, and in a short time will be ready to fill all orders in this respect. We have some eight or ten stores of different kinds, and a full supply of professional gentlemen. We have bakers, butchers, shoemakers, tailors and milliners."

We take from the pamphlet the following statistical facts, showing the prodigious advances of manufacturing towns, which should furnish to the people of the South in particular the most salutary lessons. Let us take the old cities of Charleston and Savannah, and ask why they have so long been as it were stationary, while every thing around is in motion? By the introduction of an extensive system of manufactures, it would be easy to advance the population of these cities two-fold in a single decade. We believe their citizens are now beginning to perceive it.

"The causes of the growth of modern cities are the concentration, or assemblage in certain localities, of the materials, or the most useful materials, which afford labor for the hand of industry, and from the products of which the growing wants of mankind are supplied.

"To sustain this position we submit the following concise statements, showing the causes of the growth and progress of the several cities and towns respectively mentioned:

"*Birmingham, England.*—This city in 1801 had a population of 73,670, in 1831 of 146,986, in 1839 an estimated population of 190,000, and at the present time of probably not less than 250,000. Its opulence, celebrity and magnitude are ascribable to the iron, stone and coal with which the district abounds.

"*Bolton, England.*—The rapid growth and prosperity of this town dates from 1770-80. Its population in 1773 was 5,604; in 1801, 18,583; in 1811, 25,551; in 1821, 32,973; in 1831, 43,397. It is a seat of cotton manufacture, and the birth-place of Arkwright. Its growth is attributed to its command of coal, being situated in a coal district.

"*Bradford, England.*—Township consists of 1,680 acres; population in 1801, 6,393; in 1821, 13,064; in 1831, no less than 23,233, and since that period has increased still more rapidly. Its growth is owing to its manufactures, which are facilitated by its unlimited command of coal and its abundance of iron.

"*Burnley, England.*—Population in 1801, 3,305; in 1821, 6,378; in 1841,

54,192. A manufacturing town. Cause of growth, abundance and cheapness of coal found in the vicinity, with a good supply of free-stone, slate, etc. The town is built mostly of free-stone.

"*Bury, England.*—A large manufacturing town, consisting of 4,360 acres. Population in 1821, 13,480; in 1841, 77,496. In the parish of the same name, and which includes this town, are *extensive quarries of building stone*, and *nine wrought coal mines*.

"*Carlisle, England.*—A manufacturing town, supplied with coal from places varying from twelve to twenty miles distant. Population in 1801, 10,221; in 1821, 15,486; in 1841, 36,084.

"*Charleroy.*—An important manufacturing town in Belgium, situated in the centre of the great coal basin of Charleroy. In 1836 it had seventy-two mines in active operation, producing 900,000 tons of coal per annum. Iron abounds, and also quarries of marble and slate. Its furnaces give employment to 3,000 men, and during the winter season 4,000 men are employed in making nails. Its coal, iron and stone have made it what it is.

"*Derby, England.*—A manufacturing town, with both water-power and coal. Population in 1841, 35,015; in 1811 it was only 13,943.

"*Durham, England.*—In 1821 this city had a population of 10,282; in 1831, only 10,520. About this time extensive collieries were opened, and population immediately increased, so that in 1840 the number of its inhabitants was put down at 40,000. Previous to this it was one of the dullest cities in the kingdom. *Stone, lime, coal and iron* abound.

"*Huddersfield, England.*—The township consists of 3,950 acres, and had a population in 1801 of 7,268, in 1831 of 19,035. The population of the parish in 1840 was estimated at 40,000. It is one of the principal seats of the woollen manufacture, and stands in the midst of a rich coal field. There is also an ample supply of water-power.

"*Johnston, Scotland.*—The rise of this town has been more rapid than any other town in Scotland. The ground on which it stands began, for the first time, to be fuel, or let, on building leases, in 1781, when it contained only ten persons. Its population in 1840 is set down at 7,000. Its growth is owing to the introduction of manufactures, it being situated on a fine water-power. It has several foundries and machine-shops, and near the town are four collieries.

"*Leeds, England.*—A celebrated manufacturing town, and the great centre of the woollen cloth trade. Population of the town in 1831, 71,602. Its eminence is owing partly to its advantageous situation in a fertile country, intersected with rivers, and partly to its possessing inexhaustible beds of coal.

"*Leigh, England.*—A manufacturing town, with a population in 1841 of 22,229. In 1834, according to Mr. Baines, upwards of 8,000 persons were employed in spinning and weaving cotton and silk, both by hand and power looms. Its industry and growth is promoted by its abundance of coal and lime.

"*Lowell, Massachusetts.*—Population in 1820, 200; at the present time, 35,000. Cause of growth, its great water-power.

"*Lawrence, Massachusetts.*—Present population, 7,500. Four or five years ago it was but a school district. Its water-wheels have graded streets, and lined these with splendid edifices on *alluvial* land so poor that it would not average a crop of 15 bushels of corn to the acre without artificial enrichment.

"*Manchester, New-Hampshire,* in 1835 was a small hamlet; in 1840 a few mills had increased its population to about 3,000; it is said to contain now about 17,000 souls. Although it is in a hilly and barren country, and receives its materials and sends its products over about sixty miles of rail-road, it is still growing with rapidity, because it has the motive-power of the Merrimac.

"*Manchester, England.*—The great centre of the cotton manufacture in Great Britain, and the principal manufacturing town in the world. Manchester and Salford are separated by the small river Irwell, and form one town, covering 3,000 acres. The population of the town and suburbs, including Salford, in 1801, was 95,313; in 1831, 239,388; and in 1841 was estimated at 360,000. Manufacturing has made Manchester. The steam engine, with other improved machines for working up cotton, have made its manufactures, and the coal from the inexhaustible coal-field, on the edge of which the city is situated, has fed the engine. Hence the modern growth of Manchester is ascribable to its coal.

"*Merthyr-Tydvil, S. Wales.*—Population 27,460 in 1831; in 1841, 34,977. It

is remarkable for its iron works, and is wholly indebted for its prosperity to its rich mines of coal, iron ore and lime-stone. Towards the middle of the last century it was an insignificant village, and in 1755 the lands and mines for several miles around the village, the seat of the great works now erected, were let for ninety-nine years for £200 a year.

"*Newcastle-upon-Tyne.*—Population in 1831, 53,613; in 1841 estimated at 65,000. It owes its importance, if not its existence, to its convenient situation as a place of shipment for the coal wrought in its neighborhood.

"*Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.*—The population of Pittsburg for each decennary period from 1800 was 1,565, 4,768, 7,248, 12,542, 21,115. With its dependences it has a present population of about 100,000; and although it has lost the greater part of its transportation and commercial business, it is now growing more rapidly than ever. The copper ore of Lake Superior, the lead of Illinois, the wheat of Michigan, the cotton of Tennessee, and even the iron and sand of Missouri, are transported to and combined by the power that lies in the Pittsburg coal.

"*Oldham, England.*—A large manufacturing town, chiefly cotton. Population in 1841, 42,595. In 1760 it comprised only about sixty thatched tenements. In 1839 it had two hundred manufactories, set in motion by a steam-power equal to 2,942 horses, and employing 15,391 hands. It has an abundant and immediate supply of excellent coal.

"*Rochester, New-York.*—Population in 1820, 1,502; in 1830, 9,269; in 1840, 20,191. It owes its great advantages and rapid growth to its vast water-power, created by the falls in the Genesee river.

"*Sheffield, England.*—Noted for its hardware, cutlery, etc. Population of the parish in 1801, 45,755; in 1831, 91,692; and in 1841, 110,801. Its manufactures are extensive, and known the world over. Coal and iron have made the city.

"*Wolverhampton, England.*—This town, or rather the district including the town, comprises 16,630 acres. Its population in 1831 was 67,514. In 1841 the population of the town alone was 36,189. Wolverhampton, and the places in its vicinity, owe their rapid rise to the mines of coal and iron-stone.

"Other illustrations, such as Pottsville, Cumberland, Wheeling, Pomeroy, etc., might be adduced, but those already given are believed to be sufficient to indicate the tendency of men at the present time to cluster around and to build their homes in such localities as afford them the great staples and materials upon which they may bestow their labor, and for which they may receive the largest rates of compensation."

Cannellton Economist.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

SOUTHERN COMMERCE AS INFLUENCED BY THE GULF STREAM.

At a late meeting of the Scientific Association, held at Charleston, S. C., Lieut. Maury read a paper upon the influences the discovery of the Gulf Stream has had upon the commerce of that city, which is so able and interesting, that we need no apology in presenting it to our readers.

"Lieut. Maury said, that before the Gulf Stream was known to practical navigators, the course of trade between England and America was such, as to make Charleston the half-way house between the mother country and the New England States, including Pennsylvania and New-York.

"At that time, the usual route of vessels bound to America was to run down on the other side towards the Cape de Verdes, and until they got the N. E. trades, and with them to steer for America. This route brought them upon the coast of the Southern States, where their first landfall was generally made. Then steering to the northward, they drifted along until they made the Capes of the Delaware, or other headlands to the North.

"If now, as it often happened in the winter season, they were driven off the coast

by snow storms and westerly gales, instead of running off into the Gulf stream, as vessels now do to thaw themselves, they stood back to Charleston or the West Indies, where they would spend the winter, and wait until the spring before making another attempt.

"It should be borne in mind that vessels then were not the sea boats or the sailers they now are. Lieut. Maury had the log-book of a West India trader in 1746. Her average rate of sailing, per log, was one mile the hour.

"The instruments of navigation were rude, chronometers were unknown, and lunars were impracticable, and it was no uncommon thing for vessels in those days, when crossing the Atlantic, to be out of their reckoning 5° , 6° , and even 10° . And when it was announced that a vessel might know by consulting the water thermometer, when she crossed the eastern edge of the Gulf stream, and again when she crossed the western edge, navigators likened the discovery to the drawing of blue and red streaks in the water, by which, when the mariner crossed, then he might know his longitude.

"The merchants of Providence, R. I., Dr. FRANKLIN being in London, sent a petition to the Lords of the Treasury, asking that the Falmouth packets might run to Providence instead of to Boston; they maintained that though Boston and Falmouth were between Providence and London, yet that practically the two former were further apart, for they showed that the average passage of the London traders to Providence was fourteen days less than the packet line from Falmouth to Boston.

"Dr FRANKLIN, on being questioned as to this fact, consulted an old New-England Captain, who had been a whaler, and who informed the Doctor, that the London traders to Providence were commanded for the most part by New-England fishermen, who knew how to avoid the Gulf stream, while the Falmouth packets were commanded by Englishmen who knew nothing about it.

"These two drew a chart, which was published at the Tower, and the Gulf stream, as laid down there by that Yankee whaler, has been preserved upon our charts until within a few years.

"At the time that Dr. FRANKLIN made it known how navigators, simply by dipping a thermometer in the water, might know when they entered, and when they cleared the Gulf stream, Charleston had more commerce than New-York, and all the New-England States put together.

"This discovery changed the route across the Atlantic, shortened the passage from sixty to thirty days, coming this way, and consequently changed the course of trade also.

"Instead of calling by Charleston as they came from England, vessels went direct to the port of their destination; instead of running down to Charleston to avoid a New-England snow storm, they stood off for a few hours, until they reached the tepid waters of the Gulf stream, in the genial warmth of which the crew recovered their energies, and as soon as the gale abated they were ready for another attempt to make their haven.

"In this way the northern ports became the half-way-house, and Charleston an outside station.

"This revolution in the course of trade commenced about 1795. It worked slowly at first, but in 1816-17, it received a fresh impulse from Jeremiah Thompson, Isaac Wright and others, who conceived the idea of establishing a line of packets between New-York and Liverpool. This was at a period when the scales of commercial ascendancy were vibrating between New-York, Boston, Philadelphia and other places. The packet ships of the staid New-York quaker turned the balance. Though only of 300 tons burden, and sailing but once a month, they had their regular day of departure, and the merchants of Charleston, Philadelphia, etc., found it convenient to avail themselves of this regular and stated channel for communicating with their agents in England, ordering goods, etc. Those packets went on increasing in numbers and size until now; at the present day we have them building of 2000 tons, sailing every day, and running between New-York and every fifth-rate sea-port town in the United States, and to many foreign ports.

"Thus an impulse was given to the prosperity of New-York; one enterprise begat another, until that city became the great commercial emporium and centre of exchange of the new world; and all these results are traceable to the use of the water-thermometer at sea.

"Other causes, doubtless, have operated to take away from Charleston her relative commercial importance—but the primary cause was that discovery which removed Charleston from the way-side of commerce with Europe, and which placed

her on the outskirts of the great commercial thoroughfares, and away from the situation which she occupied.

"In consequence of the improvement since made in navigation, ship building, etc., Lieut. Maury, remarked that a ship could now go from New-York to New-England, and back, in less time than, when Charleston was the half-way house, she could get to Charleston from London.

"He therefore submitted whether this fact were not sufficient to turn the scales of commerce, and he claimed the fact to be due to the influence of the Gulf stream upon the course of trade, and the water-thermometer was the key to it all."

2. TRADE WITH CHINA.

THE opening of the gold mines of California, and the constant intercourse between the United States and the North Pacific, consequent upon the emigration of an immense number of our citizens to that territory, leads us to inquire with more than ordinary interest into the condition of the trade of that part of the world, and among the countries which attract attention, China is the most prominent. The projected lines of communication between the United States and North Pacific, one or the other of which must, at no very distant day, be commenced, will, in point of time, greatly reduce the distance between the United States and the Celestial Empire, and thereby afford to our citizens superior facilities for commencing and carrying on with the Celestials a most important traffic. The opening of this trade would tend to stimulate the Chinese to cultivate intercourse with our country, as it also would to relieve them from that odious traffic, to which we may say they are now in bondage—the opium trade. This has been forced upon them by British India, and it is continued only because, compared with England, China is the weaker vessel. The latter would not willingly submit to a traffic which has such a baneful effect upon the interests of their whole Empire. Increased intercourse with the United States would tend to relieve the Chinese from this odious business, this system of robbery, by which one hundred million of people are enslaved for the profit of a few noble families in England. It will be the interest of the people of the United States to use all honorable means to abolish this traffic, as we can never expect to introduce our manufactures into China to any extent so long as England, with opium in one hand and the sword in the other, compels the Chinese to purchase that which keeps their markets in a state of continued depression by reason of the constant and enormous drain of specie for which no return is made except in that which reduces the moral condition of the people to that of the beast, and even lower.

This opium trade with China commenced in 1774, when England succeeded in stationing an opium ship at Whampoa, but the trade did not flourish much till 1821, when Linton Island became the chief market for the sale of the drug. About that time from three thousand to four thousand chests were sold per annum, worth some three million dollars, and in the next year (1822) the amount rose to twelve thousand chests per annum, and increased to forty thousand chests in 1847, when the trade produced war. In the conflict the Chinese were defeated, and since the peace the trade has continued to increase, and in 1849 there were consumed forty-nine thousand chests, for which forty million of dollars in pure silver was paid. The following is an official statement of this business for the last twenty-seven years.

Chests per annum.				Aggregate value.	
Up to 1822,	-	-	-	3,500	\$10,000,000
1822 to 1833,	-	-	-	12,000	72,000,000
1833 to 1839,	-	-	-	30,000	108,000,000
1829 to 1843,	-	-	-	war indemnity,	21,000,000
1840 to 1849,	-	-	-	45,138	108,579,600

Total, \$319,579,600

The increase in the consumption of the drug in the last ten years, it is seen, has been very great; and although there has also been an increase in the exports of Chinese produce, yet the export of the precious metals in the adjustment of the balance adverse to China, has reached the annual sum of ten millions of dollars. Previous to the traffic in this pernicious drug, China was the recipient of the precious metals from the Western country, in adjustment of the balance in her favor. The opium traffic is not the only obstacle which England has thrown in the way to keep in a state of depression the Chinese Empire. She has imposed upon the tea imported

into the United Kingdom an enormous tax, amounting to nearly three times the value of the article itself. Under such a load of taxation it is impossible for the tea trade to expand. In 1847, the value of the tea exported from China was £2,749,577, and the duty paid on tea in the United Kingdom the same year was £5,067,042. In 1848, the exports of tea from China amounted to £1,909,000, and the duties paid in the United Kingdom to £5,310,527. Thus it is seen that the Chinese have to contend at home against the demoralizing effects of the opium traffic, forced upon them by England, while at the same time their commerce with England is depressed by the enormous tax placed upon their products for the purpose of sustaining an exhausted and sinking treasury. It is easy to see, therefore, that in carrying on a trade with China, the United States would have none of those prejudices naturally arising from the present and past relations of China and England to overcome.

If, therefore, the trade of British India could be revolutionized, and the constant drain of specie from China, by which the country is impoverished, stopped, we might find among the numerous people of the Celestial Empire an important market for our manufactures. This, however, we can hardly expect unless other nations support the Chinese in enforcing their own laws on their own territories. This will doubtless be the case, for it is hardly possible that such extortion could be carried on without attracting the attention and inducing the interference of rival Governments. A brief account of the manner of raising the opium will show how the producers, as well as the consumers, are imposed upon. The plan is this: All the lands are surveyed and reckoned every year; the farmers are then required to cultivate poppy. When the plant is nearly ripe the native officer of each village, appointed by the English Indian Government, makes a circuit and estimates the yield of opium. The farmer is then compelled to deliver the quantity estimated at the price fixed by the English Indian Governor. If he fails to cultivate poppy, or deliver the estimate, his property is subject to confiscation and himself to exile. The Government agents are also always so far in advance to their farmers, that as debtors they are doubly slaves. The chests thus obtained cost the Government three hundred rupees, say \$136 each, and then the Government sells in Calcutta, to the opium merchants, at an average of fourteen hundred rupees, \$369 each, being a profit of \$493 per chest. This on 40,000 chests, gives a net revenue of \$17,320,000 per annum. They also draw a tax of \$150 per chest on 20,000 chests per annum, and the officers of the Government admit that without it the Government could not be carried on.

3. CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.—JANUARY

	1848.	1849.	1850.
Number of banks and branches, -	751	782	829
Capital paid in, -	\$204,833,175	\$207,309,361	\$217,317,211
RESOURCES.			
Loans and discounts, -	344,476,582	332,333,195	364,204,078
Stocks, -	26,498,054	23,571,575	20,006,759
Real estate, -	20,530,955	17,491,809	20,582,166
Other investments, -	8,229,682	7,965,463	11,949,548
Due by other banks, -	38,904,525	33,258,407	41,631,855
Notes of other banks, -	16,426,716	12,708,016	17,303,239
Specie Funds, -	10,409,822	8,680,483	11,003,245
Specie, -	46,369,765	43,619,308	45,379,345
LIABILITIES.			
Circulation, -	128,506,091	114,742,415	131,306,526
Deposits, -	103,226,177	91,178,623	100,536,595
Due to other banks, -	39,414,371	30,005,366	36,717,451
Other liabilities, -	5,501,401	6,706,357	8,835,359
Total of current credits, i. e., circulation and deposits, -	231,732,268	205,922,038	210,953,121
Total of immediate liabilities, i. e., circulations, deposits and sums due to other banks, -	217,146,639	236,017,404	277,670,572
Total of immediate means, i. e., specie, specie funds, notes of other banks, and sums due to other banks, -	112,191,828	98,236,274	114,917,778
Excess of immediate liabilities above immediate means, -	158,954,811	137,781,130	162,752,794

SPECIE IN THE BANKS, CIRCULATION AND DEPOSITS.

	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Total of current credits.
1834,	-	\$94,839,570	\$75,666,986	\$170,503,556
1835,	-	\$43,937,625	100,602,405	131,773,860
1836,	-	40,019,594	140,301,038	276,495,478
1837,	-	37,915,340	149,135,190	276,533,075
1838,	-	35,184,112	116,138,910	200,830,694
1839,	-	45,132,673	135,170,995	225,411,141
1840,	-	33,165,155	106,986,572	182,665,439
1841,	-	34,818,913	107,290,214	172,180,315
1842,	-	28,440,423	83,734,011	146,142,881
1843,	-	33,515,806	58,563,603	114,732,231
1844,	-	49,898,269	75,167,646	159,718,431
1845,	-	44,241,242	89,608,711	177,629,357
1846,	-	42,012,095	105,552,427	202,465,497
1847,	-	35,132,516	105,519,766	197,312,299
1848,	-	46,369,765	128,596,091	281,732,263
1849,	-	43,619,363	114,743,415	205,922,033
1850,	-	45,379,345	131,366,526	240,953,121

In May, 1837, the banks suspended specie payments. In May, 1838, the New-York banks resumed specie payments, and the other banks attempted to follow their example, so that by January, 1839, there was what was called a general resumption of specie payments, though in many parts of the Union this was merely nominal.

In October, 1839, the banks of Philadelphia again suspended specie payments, and were imitated by the banks of the South and West.

Specie payments were not fairly resumed by the banks of Philadelphia till March, 1842. The banks of the South and West imitated their example; but in September, 1842, there was a tremendous bank convulsion at New-Orleans, the effects of which were felt throughout the country. The consequence was, that by the 1st of June, 1843, the current credits of the banks were reduced to a very small amount. They continued small till May, 1843, when an expansion began, which was at first very gradual.

The great increase in the amount of specie and bank credits in 1848 over 1847, was in consequence of the demand for our breadstuffs in Europe.

In January last, the circulation of the banks was greater than it had been in any previous years, excepting 1834, 1837 and 1839; and the year 1839 may be left out of the comparison, as in the returns for that year are included many banks which did not pay specie.

In January, 1850, the banks were more expanded than they were in January, 1848.

The small amount in which the specie in the vaults of the banks varies, when compared with the amount of their circulation and deposits, is not unworthy of observation.

The greatest amount of specie in the banks was in 1844, when it was \$49,898,269. The smallest was in 1842, when it was \$28,440,423. Difference, \$21,457,846.

The circulation was lowest in 1843, when it was \$58,563,608; and highest in 1837, when it was \$149,185,190. Difference, \$90,621,582.

The deposits were lowest in 1843, when they were \$56,168,623; and highest in 1837, when they were \$127,397,185. Difference, \$71,228,562.

The current credits were greatest in 1837, when they were \$276,583,075; smallest in 1843 when they were \$114,732,231. Difference, \$161,850,844.

4. WESTERN STEAMERS IN 1819.

The following extract from the journal of a gentleman who was engaged in the New-Orleans trade thirty-one years ago (politely furnished for publication in the Democrat) may for the basis of an interesting comparison between the boats' tonnage and business of that early day and those of the present time. It will be found useful for future reference:

"In looking over the journal of my peregrinations through the Mississippi valley in my early days, I find under date of August 6th, 1819, and taken from a New-Or-

leans paper of August 1st, the following list of steamboats which had been licensed and enrolled at the Custom House, New-Orleans:

Names of Boats.	Tons.	Names of Boats.	Tons.
Rising States - - - - -	221	James Ross - - - - -	270
Ætna - - - - -	361	Kentucky - - - - -	112
Alabama - - - - -	319	Louisiana - - - - -	103
Buffalo - - - - -	249	Maysville - - - - -	209
Constitution - - - - -	113	Napoleon - - - - -	316
Cincinnati - - - - -	157	Newport - - - - -	60
Eagle - - - - -	118	Ohio - - - - -	364
Exchange - - - - -	212	Ramage - - - - -	146
Franklin - - - - -	132	Tamerlane - - - - -	307
Frankfort - - - - -	286	Vesuvius - - - - -	390
George Madison - - - - -	198	Vesta - - - - -	203
Gov. Shelby - - - - -	106	Volcano - - - - -	217
Gen. Jackson - - - - -	143	Washington - - - - -	403
Harriet - - - - -	54	Maid of Orleans - - - - -	393
Henderson - - - - -	123	Rifleman - - - - -	31
Hecla - - - - -	124	St. Louis - - - - -	200
James Monroe - - - - -	140	Columbus - - - - -	450
Johnson - - - - -	140	Paragon - - - - -	500

Total number of boats - - - - 36. Total tonnage - - - - 7,770

"The journal continues: 'There are a number of other steamboats running on the Ohio, Mississippi above the mouth of the Ohio, the Illinois, and Mississippi rivers, which never have been enrolled and licensed in New-Orleans.'

"The steamboat St. Louis was built in Baltimore, is rigged schooner fashion, and is considered a very fine boat.'

"December 5th, 1820.—In addition to my list of steamboats, I will now add the names of a few more, which have been built since that date, viz: Mississippi, Tennessee, United States, Cumberland, Arkansas, Post Boy, Feliciana, Fayette, Gen. Robertson, Lightning Fly.'

"The tonnage of the above boats is not given, except that of the United States, which was seven hundred tons.

"I quote one passage more from my old journal:

"December 1st, 1820.—Took passage on steamboat Mississippi for New-Orleans, (from Natchez,) passage \$15. Arrived at New-Orleans December 5th, with eight hundred bales of cotton, and the weight of three hundred more, equal to one hundred and twenty tons. This is her second trip. She cost \$80,000.'

"Fast travelling, and cheap!

"Should the above extracts be permitted to occupy a corner of your weekly journal, some of our river men, who have not access to old records, may think them worth preserving.

ELIAS HIBBARD.

"Upper Alton, August 13, 1850."

5. PROSPECTIVE COMMERCE WITH JAPAN.

Much has been said and written of late in reference to a commercial mission to the East, and the possibility of opening to our commerce the closed gates of the great empire of Japan. The English appeared also to be alive to the subject, and a writer in the United Service Magazine has presented a variety of striking facts and suggestions for their consideration:

"Many of our readers may possibly have forgotten the history of European dealing with Japan; we will, therefore, commence what we have to say, by sketching briefly what was done in former times, because, latterly, scarcely anything worthy to be related has happened. The Portuguese were the first European adventurers who opened a trade with the Japanese Empire, and they reaped a golden harvest by their boldness. Arriving when the minds of the people were fresh, when there was industry and great enterprise in the country, when the culture of the soil was carried to a high degree of perfection, and when the Japanese vessels threaded all the channels of the Indian Archipelago as far as the western extremity of Java and the Ma-

Iacca Straits; they were received with open arms, allowed to settle in the country, and encouraged to carry on the freest intercourse with the inhabitants; Jesuit missionaries flocked to all the islands, made numerous converts, especially among the women, and the Japanese seemed to be on the point of passing in a body under the spiritual dominion of the Pope.

"Incredible stories are related of the riches acquired by these early adventurers. Large ships laden with gold are said to have passed constantly from Jeddo to Macao, which certainly owed much of its magnificence to this commerce, but even the most extraordinary gain will not always satisfy an ambitious people. What they had attained they counted as nothing, compared with what was unattained. They therefore projected the conquest of the whole empire, and, in order to facilitate the execution of their design, pushed on the work of conversion with redoubled vigor, judging correctly that the Christian converts would, in case of an armed struggle, be likely to side with them.

"While things were in this position, the English and Dutch made their appearance on the coast, and were viewed with the fiercest jealousy by the Portuguese, who seemed to have some mysterious intimation of what was afterwards to happen. To the public authorities, therefore, they spoke of the English and Dutch as pirates, in which they were not very far from the truth, and the appellation might with still greater propriety have been applied to themselves. But the energy of our countrymen was not thus to be quenched. They insinuated themselves into the favor of the emperor by building him ships, and scattering the seeds of civilization among his subjects. One factory after another was set up, a profitable trade was carried on, and treaties of peace and amity were concluded between the Emperor and the King of England. But James the first, then on the throne, was not the prince to encourage trade, and recommend us to a foreign people. His feeble government made no efforts to derive advantage from our alliance with Japan. The factories were neglected, the merchants left without protection, and ultimately all intercourse between the two countries was suspended without any intelligible pretext.

"Our inertness only served to excite the boldness and enterprise of the Dutch, whose proceedings at that period displayed all the chivalrous daring of democracy. But it must not be denied that they were as unscrupulous as they were bold. When the question was, whether they should run the risk of losing the Japanese trade, or coöperate with the imperial authorities in effecting the expulsion of the Portuguese and the extinction of Christianity, they do not appear to have hesitated for a moment. For a short time they enjoyed the reward of their iniquity, but by degrees their allies came to entertain suspicions of them also, and having circumscribed their dealings from time to time, at length shut them up as prisoners on the little artificial island of Dezuna, in Nangasaki Bay.

"A regulation was then passed, according to which the Dutch were permitted to send to Japan no more than two ships a year, while to the merchants of the Celestial empire the privilege was accorded of introducing four junks.

"From that time to the present, Japan may be said to have virtually secluded itself from the great family of mankind.

"Several journals endeavored a few years ago to prevail on the British government to send out ambassadors on a commercial mission to Jedo, and we believe we are quite correct in stating that ministers were strongly inclined to act upon the suggestion of the press. The history of that movement in favor of trade is so interesting, that our readers will, we feel assured, excuse us if we devote a few words to it. One of our daily journals, having maturely considered the question, put forth a leading article on the subject, strongly urging the necessity of sending out a commercial mission, and showing on what scale it ought to be organized. Two or three days afterwards another daily journal took up the subject, though slightly, and in a mere paragraph. The original mover turned to the charge, and in article after article investigated, explained, and developed the subject. This touched our Dutch neighbors too nearly to allow of their passing over the matter in silence. Accordingly the journals of Holland entered upon it in an angry and declamatory manner, and were immediately followed by those of Germany, some of which took the English, and some the Dutch side. Next the French came into the field; and here again there was a division of opinion, for while the more respectable adopted the view and idea of the British press, the inferior ones echoed the accusations of Holland against Great Britain.

"Presently the American journals joined eagerly in the discussion, investigated

the nature of Japanese commerce, and pointed out to the merchants of the republic how many and great would be the advantages of opening up a trade with Japan. From various sources they collected new information respecting the productions of this distant part of Asia, and, by an ingenious mixture of statement and speculation, imparted a peculiar interest to their articles. Nor did the excitement stop here: all the leading journals in our Indian Empire took part in the discussion, as well as those of Singapore and Hong Kong; and all, we believe, without exception, adopted the views of the *Morning Chronicle*, with which the idea had originated. But unfortunately the newspapers published in our Asiatic dominions exercise little influence in Europe, through that unaccountable apathy which induces the people of this country, as well as of the continent, almost entirely to neglect the affairs of the East.

"Still the exertions of the press were not without their consequences. The United States, always alive to whatever concerns the interest of trade, despatched two ships of war to Jedo, under the command of Commodore Biddle, with instructions to overcome, if possible, the reluctance of the Japanese government to open general relations with the states of Christendom. As a rule, the envoys of our transatlantic brethren are too able and energetic to be foiled in their attempts when these are directed by prudence towards a just aim. In fact the diplomatists of America, distinguished for their tact and integrity, have in nearly all parts of the world beheld their conscientious labors crowned with success. With Commodore Biddle the case was different. He had not, probably, been selected with reference to that special case, and failed more through ignorance of the people with whom he had to deal than through any absence of a natural talent for business.

"Whatever may have been the cause, his mission was unsuccessful, and at the conclusion of it, the reciprocal feelings of the Americans and Japanese were less friendly than at its commencement.

"Almost at the same time the French, under Admiral Cecille, who had made himself advantageously known on the Chinese coast, undertook the part of rival diplomatist to the American commodore. The French commander enjoyed the advantage of possessing in the present bishop of Hong Kong an interpreter of no ordinary abilities, so that the mission was not compelled to trust entirely to those Dutch or native interpreters who so frequently misrepresent to the Japanese authorities the wishes and expectations of European visitors. In spite, however, of these advantages, Admiral Cecille's enterprise met with precisely the same fate as Commodore Biddle's. The Japanese refused to surrender their prejudices to the commercial logic of Europe, for reasons which we shall presently explain. Consequently the French quitted the shores of Japan, with feelings no less irritated than those of the United States' officers; and it now remains therefore for Great Britain to make her appearance in a becoming manner on the scene.

"It appears, therefore, perfectly credible that the population of Japan should be very great, rather over perhaps than under forty millions. It has further been ascertained beyond dispute, that these people are fond of dress, ornaments and show of all kinds, and would purchase European manufactures to the extent of their means. Some perhaps may point to China, as an illustration of the fallacy of our commercial hopes, since we, some years ago, confidently reckoned on having to supply a hundred and fifty millions of people with British manufactures. Whereas, experience has taught us, that a very small part indeed of that vast population receives its articles of use or luxury from us. But is this fact owing to the distaste of the people for our manufactures, or to the arbitrary interference of their rulers? The Chinese, though deeply prejudiced against our countrymen, would yet, if left entirely to themselves, become very large purchasers of European goods. But they trade in fetters. A mandarin's fan paralyses the capital and the desires of a whole province, and we shall probably have to struggle for many years to come against a host of follies and prejudices, for the present invincible.

"Should the same obstacles be encountered in Japan, the trade there also would be of slow growth, but from all the circumstances which have come to our knowledge, and they are not a few, we are inclined to augur a very different result. Instead of hating us with a stupid hatred, like the Chinese, the people of Japan evince a decided partiality for us, especially since they have become disgusted with the phlegmatic cunning and insatiable avarice of the Dutch. During the visit of the 'Samarang,' the inhabitants of Nangasaki and its environs displayed a wonderful eagerness to enter into commercial dealings with the English, and several of the public functionaries distinctly expressed their belief that it would require very little exertion on the

part of our government to prevail on the court of Jedo to renew commercial relations. With an affectation of simplicity, which did not altogether impose on the British commander, they pretended to be ignorant of the reasons which have kept up the estrangement between the English and the Japanese. If they referred to the causes which led to the original suspension of trade between the two countries, they might well enough be perplexed to discover what they were, since they are probably not sufficiently well versed in our history to remember the listless apathy of the first two Stuarts, with the internal struggles which arose out of it. We were not driven out of Japan. On the contrary, our departure was regretted, but our minds were too much taken up with interests nearer home to think of the value of that distant market.

"However, the great question now is, not how we came to lose the trade of Japan, but how we may best recover it? No attention whatever should be paid to the representations of the Dutch, who lie systematically whenever they can hope to derive the slightest advantage from their falsehood. They maintain and it is their interest to maintain, that the Japanese government views the power of England in the east with as much apprehension and jealousy as the Chinese themselves, and if pushed by us would as peremptorily as ever refuse to renew commercial relations with us. That they should be uneasy at our progress in Asia is intelligible enough; but their very terrors would induce them to consent to an amicable commerce rather than provoke hostilities. We have proved, at least to our own satisfaction, that we should be justified in compelling the Japanese to relinquish their exclusive system; but at the same time we are thoroughly convinced that there would be no necessity for applying force, since both the authorities and the people have given the most unequivocal tokens of a desire to trade with us.

"But some ingenious sophists have objected that Japan is prevented by its natural poverty from becoming an advantageous market for our goods, for which they affirm it has nothing to give us in exchange. But whoever argues thus, can be but imperfectly acquainted with the productions and resources of the Japanese empire, which, though the people have for centuries been kept in artificial poverty, are greater than those of China in proportion to the extent of the two countries.

"We have already alluded to the gold mines of Japan, which, if properly worked, would make it another California on a vast scale. At present the unwise laws of the country almost entirely prevent the opening up of this source of wealth. In all such mines two-thirds of the produce are claimed by the emperor, though, as has been very *naively* remarked, the one-third of the private proprietors generally very greatly exceeds the emperor's two-thirds. But when capital and industry have no resource but in fraud, they can display no great energy. Besides, the fear sometimes seizes on the court that the springs of gold will speedily run dry in Japan, which, according to their ideas of political economy, would altogether impoverish the country and ruin the state. They imagine that gold, though hidden in the earth, exercises some magic influences over the destinies of a nation, and that they never can be considered poor while it is possible for them to obtain that precious metal by digging. What the wealth of the gold mines may be, cannot be ascertained at present, but there seems to be no reason to doubt, that should we succeed in opening up a trade with the islands, the people for some time to come would pay very largely for our manufactures in specie.

"Superior, even in importance to the gold, is the copper of Japan, the supply of which appears to be altogether inexhaustible. In quality it is confessedly the finest in the world, and the Dutch are careful to take a large portion of it in payment for their goods. Some years ago considerable opposition was made to the attempt at opening the Japanese trade, from the owners of mines in Cornwall; but a more intimate acquaintance with the doctrines of political economy would now seem to have silenced that clamor.

"Silver and iron are likewise produced in abundance in several islands of the group, but of all its mineral substances, none can be compared for importance with coal—if coal be indeed a mineral. The coal mines of Borneo have already conferred a double value on that part of the Archipelago, and if beyond its utmost limits towards the north-east, we could command an inexhaustible supply of this material, it would greatly facilitate the development of the riches of that part of the globe. It must be confessed, however, that our information respecting the Japanese coal is hitherto extremely imperfect, though there appears to be no reason at all for doubting that whatever may be its quality, it exists in great abundance in the country. Another

product of the Japanese Islands, which all will consider to be of the highest value, is cotton. The people of British India want either capital or enterprise, or both, and therefore neglect the growing of cotton, for all the superior kinds of which we are entirely dependent on the United States. Were we in possession of a trade with Japan, we should soon be able to obtain a large supply of cotton from thence. Respecting its staple, whether long or short, and its quality, whether fine or coarse, we are hitherto very much in the dark, since we possess no report made by any competent persons on the subject. Still it cannot be doubted that, if encouraged by a steady demand, the Japanese would make the most of the capabilities of their soil and climate, and send the best possible article into the market.

"The silk of Japan has long been celebrated throughout the world, though often produced under circumstances the most discouraging. The little now exported finds its way to Java, where it is worn by the native chiefs and the wealthy Dutch officials. Occasionally some few pieces are brought to Holland, where they are regarded rather as curiosities than as merchandise. Supposing the trade opened, the silk dressing-gowns of Japan would no doubt become a considerable article of export. They may perhaps be regarded as the most extraordinary article of dress in the world, being from an inch to an inch and a half thick, which suggests the idea of immense weight, though in reality they feel, when worn, as light as a gossamer. The thickness is produced by wadding composed of some substance so fine and delicate that, like the 'woven wind' of the ancients, its separate fibres are almost invisible.

"We must not, in this slight sketch of Japanese exports, omit the tea, the costlier kinds of which are, on all hands, admitted to be more richly flavored than those of China. Very few specimens have for the last two hundred years appeared in the English market, and these, at the India-House sales, have brought from fifty to sixty shillings a pound. In all likelihood, however, these were not by any means the finest specimens, since what are called in the island imperial teas are consumed almost exclusively by the princes and nobles. Strange stories are related of the means of producing this courtly beverage, and there is probably in all of them no small admixture of the fabulous; still, as they are characteristic of Japanese manners and ideas, our readers may not dislike to be presented with a sample.

"The tea-shrubs intended for the use of the imperial court are grown on a mountain near Meaco; that is, in the district supposed to be the most favorable in the world to the production of this article. This mountain is fenced round from vulgar intrusion by a ditch and thick hedge, and none but those employed in the cultivation of the tea are permitted to enter. The shrubs are laid out so as to form avenues, which are daily swept and kept scrupulously clean.

"So far the precautions taken are intelligible; but in much of what follows the reader will detect the influence of an oriental and imperial imagination. The young leaves, which begin to put forth about the first of March, which commences the Japanese year, are gathered when only a few days old; that is, in their most tender and delicate state. The persons employed in collecting them are subjected, under the most rigid inspection, to a curious regimen and discipline. During the operation they must not eat fish, or any other article of food likely to affect their breath. They are next compelled to bathe twice or thrice a day, and after all are not permitted to touch the leaves with their hands; they therefore work in gloves; and the delicate green treasure, when collected, is deposited in cornets of white paper, till subjected to the drying process, analogous to that employed in China. Into an account of this, it would be beside our present purpose to enter; but we may mention that there are three gatherings of the tea-leaf—the first, which takes place, as we have said, early in March; the second at the end of the same month, or in the beginning of April; and the third in the beginning of May, when the leaves are two months old. This last gathering produces the coarsest kind of tea, appropriated to the use of the humbler classes.

"The cultivation of this delicate shrub is conducted among the Japanese upon principles somewhat different from those that regulate its growth in China. It is not commonly laid out in distinct plantations, but in lines, which serve as hedges between the corn and rice fields. The seeds are thinly sown in drills, four or five inches deep, and when the shrub has attained its full growth, that is, in six or seven years, and is about the height of a man, it is cut down and succeeded by fresh shoots.

"For various reasons the trees are not planted close; first, because they would then cast too dense a shade; secondly, there would not be around them a free circulation of air, which would impart a rankness to the leaves. In many cases the cultivation

is carried on upon the most arid mountains, which probably stunts the shrub, but improves the flavor of the tea. In most cases the excellence of vegetable productions is proportioned to the aridity of the soil, which occasions a diminution in quantity, while it improves the quality. Thus the olives of Attica were the most prized in antiquity, as the honey was the sweetest and most fragrant. For the same reason it can scarcely be doubted that the superior teas of Japan are unrivalled for aroma and delicacy of flavor. It is in no way inconsistent with such an opinion that the wealthier Japanese set a high value on the finer teas from China, because, all the world over, mankind are fond of variety, and especially commodities brought from a distance.

"Among other articles of Japanese export we must reckon the finest rice in Asia, or perhaps in the world, since even that of Carolina shrinks from comparison with it. To this we might add a long catalogue, such as provisions, deer and goat-skins, flax, hemp, exquisite earthenware, varnish, red naphtha, medical drugs, odoriferous gums, amber, ambergris, and pearls; but the wealth which that immense group of islands could supply to commerce, were their industry emancipated from all trammels, cannot now be conjectured, because the half-civilized natives are incapable of appreciating the resources of their country, and prevented by their barbarous government from converting to useful purposes the natural riches which time or accident has discovered to them.

"We shall not here insist on the increase of our knowledge of mankind that must accrue from a thorough investigation of Japan, for such considerations weigh only with the few: to these, however, it would be no small satisfaction to be able to penetrate into that extraordinary system of ideas, ethical and metaphysical, which make up the politics and religion of these secluded people. When the country was formerly accessible, most travellers were incompetent to enter upon abstruse researches, in ethnology, physiology, ethics, politics, or metaphysics. They limited their observation to the most obvious phenomena of nature and society, and would immediately have been lost in the attempt to grasp the subtle theories prevailing among the strange and secluded nations they sometimes visited. Even now travellers equal to the task of refined observation are few. Not one in ten thousand can emancipate himself from the maze of the notions in which he was educated. Almost every man carries about with him a little moral and intellectual Europe, from the level of which he judges and condemns whatever is new or strange to him, or above or below his comprehension. Still more remarkably was this the case when Japan was visited by Kempfer and the Jesuits, and the more recent travellers, such as Thunberg, Titsingh, Siebold, and others, who possessed still fewer qualifications for appreciating correctly an extraordinary people.

"But, as we have said, it would be beside our present purpose to enter into considerations like these, our object being to convince the manufacturing and commercial classes of Great Britain that a vast and wealthy market might immediately be thrown open to their goods, could they be persuaded to bestir themselves, and exert that legitimate influence which they obviously possess on the proceedings of ministers."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1. ALABAMA—MOBILE AND CHICAGO RAIL-ROAD.

Alabama begins now to exhibit with her manufactures and internal improvements, much of the enterprise and spirit of her sister State of Georgia. The following from the *National Intelligencer* of a late date, condenses many valuable particulars.

The best route for this great improvement has been ascertained by elaborate surveys. It passes through five States, as follows: sixty-two and a third miles in Alabama, two hundred and seventy-one miles in Eastern Mississippi, one hundred and nineteen and one-third miles centrally in Western Tennessee, thirty-nine and one-third miles in Western Kentucky, and three hundred and seventy-five miles centrally in Illinois; making the distance from Mobile to the mouth of the Ohio river four hundred and ninety-two miles, and the entire distance, from the Gulf of Mexico to Lake Michigan, eight hundred and sixty-seven miles. Its general course, from

Mobile to the Ohio river, is slightly west of north, thence to Chicago about the same degree east of north. It crosses no navigable stream (great or small) in its whole extent, except the Ohio river, at or near its mouth. It is an average distance of ninety miles from the Mississippi river, and not less than fifty miles average distance respectively from the Illinois and Wabash rivers. Unobstructed by the tributaries of the Mississippi river on the west, it is equally clear of those of the Tombecbee, Tennessee, and Wabash rivers on the east. Thus, in its course nearly due north and south, it occupies a belt of country almost entirely destitute of natural channels of communication, and forms at the same time the most direct, cheap, and durable *trunk line* of railway that can be projected for the great valley of the West. In length it is only 11 per cent. longer than an air line, with no ascending gradient going south steeper than thirty feet per mile, and none going north over forty feet per mile; and its highest point of elevation south of the Ohio river, above tide, five hundred and five and a half feet. Its position for the intersection of other cross or diverging lines of railway is at all points very favorable, to wit: one hundred and twenty miles from Mobile, in Clarke county, Mississippi, it will cross the Vicksburg and Montgomery line; one hundred and fifty miles from Mobile, in Kamper county, Mississippi, it will receive a branch line from the coal fields of the Black Warrior Valley, via Tuscaloosa; which branch may eventually be extended to Huntsville, Alabama. In Tishomingo county, Mississippi, it will connect with the cross line of road from Memphis, Tennessee, through North Alabama to the Georgia railway, at Rome or Chattanooga. By a branch road twenty-three miles long, it will intersect the Tennessee river below the "Great Bend Shoal," three hundred and forty-six miles from Mobile. This branch, extended through Columbia and Nashville, Tennessee, to Louisville or Frankfort, Kentucky, and thence to Cincinnati, forms a connecting line of immense value to the States of Tennessee, Kentucky, Indiana and Ohio, and to the several railway interests leading from these States to the Atlantic cities. At Columbus, Kentucky, it will receive a branch from the St. Louis and Pacific line, via the Iron Mountain of Madison county, Missouri. About sixty miles east of St. Louis it will intersect the important line from that city and Alton to Cincinnati and Louisville. Still further north, and half way between the Ohio and Lake Michigan, it will cross the very direct easterly line from Springfield, Illinois, to Indianapolis, Columbus, and Baltimore. At Peru, the southern terminus of the Illinois and Michigan canal, it will branch to Chicago and Galena, to gather the traffic of the Lakes and the Upper Mississippi, and finally be extended northwardly to Lake Superior.

"As a north and south trunk line, these numerous connexions (with many more not now thought of, which will one by one spring into existence as the country becomes more densely settled) will give it an immense amount of reciprocating traffic, while its junction with the two great rivers Ohio and Mississippi, at their confluence, is in this respect no less fortunate. There each and every passing steamer will have access to the road without going out of its course; and thus, by the great number of steamers, the road will be connected with all the towns and villages situated upon the banks of the numerous rivers, whose waters here mingle.

"The total present population, white and black, in counties to be mainly accommodated by this road, is not less than one million, with an aggregate export and import tonnage of seven hundred and fifty thousand tons. The entire present population of States, and parts of States, whose markets are and will continue to be chiefly at the Gulf ports, is upwards of five millions, with an estimated export and import tonnage of four million nine hundred and eight thousand tons. While the whole present population of the Mississippi basin, including the western portions of Virginia, Pennsylvania and New York, which will be connected with the Gulf by the Mobile and Chicago road, in less distance and time than by any other avenue, is eight million five hundred thousand. The distances by this road from several important inland towns to the Gulf, as compared with the river channels, may not be without interest, to wit:

Bend of Tennessee river, via rail-road,	-	-	375 miles.
Do. do via Tennessee and Mississippi rivers,	-	-	1,455 "
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 160 hours, and	-	-	1,076 "
Memphis, Tennessee, via rail-roads,	-	-	461 "
Do. do. via Mississippi river,	-	-	913 "
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 90 hours, and	-	-	452 "

Huntsville, Alabama, via railroads,	-	-	-	478 miles.
Do. do. via Tennessee and Mississippi rivers,	-	-	-	1,542 "
Difference nearer by rail-roads, in time 170 hours, and	-	-	-	1,064 "
Nashville, Tennessee, via rail-roads,	-	-	-	508 "
Do. do. via Cumberland and Mississippi rivers,	-	-	-	1,641 "
Difference nearer by rail-roads, in time 175 hours, and	-	-	-	1,133 "
Mouth of the Ohio river, via rail-road,	-	-	-	526 "
Do. do. via Miss. river,	-	-	-	1,156 "
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 89 hours, and	-	-	-	630 "
St. Louis, via rail-roads,	-	-	-	700 "
Do. via Mississippi river,	-	-	-	1,366 "
Difference nearer by rail-roads, in time 133 hours, and	-	-	-	666 "
Cincinnati, via rail-road to Nashville and Mobile,	-	-	-	770 "
Do. via Ohio and Mississippi rivers,	-	-	-	1,666 "
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 168 hours, and	-	-	-	896 "
Chicago, via rail-road,	-	-	-	900 "
Do. via Illinois canal, and Illinois and Mississippi rivers,	-	-	-	1,734 "
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 171 hours, and	-	-	-	834 "

The total cost of this road, from Chicago to Mobile, eight hundred and sixty-seven miles, constructed with a heavy iron rail, sixty-five pounds to the yard, and fully stocked with machinery for its opening business, in proportion to the extent and productiveness of the country, will not exceed twenty thousand dollars per mile, or an aggregate of seventeen million three hundred and forty thousand; less than one-half the amount already invested in railways by the city of Boston.

"Besides the directness, cheapness, and labor-saving capacity of this road as a *trunk line*, and the extraordinary reduction to be effected by it in distance and time to the people of the West, there are several important considerations in favor of a grant of public land in aid of its construction, which I beg leave to state in the succeeding number of your paper, requesting also that the other papers at Washington will take such notice of the subject as its merits may deserve.

2. GIRARD AND MOBILE RAIL-ROAD.

In estimating the profits that will be returned to the stockholders for their investments in this road, we may be aided in our calculations by the statistics of other roads similar in character to the one under consideration. It may be said, as a general remark, that the rail-roads in Georgia, some of which will be part and parcels of the Girard road, are assimilated to this one, in the cost of construction, the amount of business, the expense of maintaining, &c.; their returns then will furnish tolerably accurate data upon which to predict our estimates.

The following figures show the condition of three of the principal rail-roads in Georgia.

From the report of the central rail-road of Georgia, we gather the following facts.

The total amount of earnings for the year 1849, were	-	-	\$668,383 91
Total expense for same time,	-	-	337,628 87

Leaving a balance as per profit, of - - - - \$333,755 04

Which is a fraction under 12½ per cent. on the capital invested.

From the report of the Macon and Western Rail-Road, for the year ending November 30, 1849, we gather that

The gross income of the road for that year, was	-	-	\$198,467 93
The expense during the same period,	-	-	87,698 67

Leaving a net profit of - - - - \$110,769 26

Which is 17½ per cent. on the entire cost of the road.

From the report of the Georgia Rail-Road for the year ending March 31, 1850, we learn that the gross profits for that year, were, - - - \$626,807 02
Total expense for the same time, - - - 228,281 97

Leaving for net profits, - - - - - \$388,525 05

As this report is of such recent date, we will quote a few details from it, going to show the flourishing condition of the road, and its increasing business.

The superintendent, in his report, states that the increased income has been from passengers, \$23,166,41; from freight, \$20,049,85. Sixty-five thousand four hundred and thirty-eight passengers have been carried in the cars of the regular trains, making an average of 179 per day, both ways, against 107 for each of the two preceding years.

The number of local passengers, exclusive of emigrants and those by extra trips, has increased from 31,518 (86 per day) to 58,091, (157 per day) and the receipts thereby, from \$104,653 to \$132,686.

A satisfactory increase is noticed in the up freights, viz.: 148,931 to 202,757, (35 per cent.) The falling off in the down freights has been caused by the short crop of cotton and entire failure of the wheat crop, the diminution of receipts from these causes, being 23,692 bales of cotton, 13,361 barrels of flour, 100,431 bushels of grain.

From the profits of the year, two dividends, of \$3 50 each per share, have been declared, amounting in the aggregate to \$289,000, and \$105,666 19, transferred to the reserved fund.

Now, upon this exhibit of the business of the Georgia roads, we may make an estimate of the success and probable revenue of the Girard road, as follows:—

Through passengers, 40,000 at \$8,	-	-	-	\$120,000
Through cotton, 75,000 bales, at \$1 50,	-	-	-	112,500
Through freights, besides cotton,	-	-	-	150,000
Way cotton, 10,000 bales,	-	-	-	40,000
Way passengers and freight,	-	-	-	50,000
Mail services,	-	-	-	50,000
				<hr/>
				\$732,000
Maintaining and working at \$1,000 per mile,	-	-	-	210,000
				<hr/>
Net balance,	-	-	-	\$522,000

Which, estimating the cost of the road at \$2,000,000, would be an interest of a fraction over 25 per cent. upon the capital stock. We are confident our figures are within due limits. The travelling now between this city and Mobile, both ways, averages one hundred per day; and when we take into consideration the great inducement that this favorite mode of travelling will present to our denizens and visitors, and the great rush of California immigrants, who would give this route the preference over the tardy and expensive sea voyage from New-York, it will be admitted that our figures for the 'through travelling' are not extravagant. The fertile character of the land through which the road will run, and the inexhaustible resources of the rich country in and around its terminus, warrant us that our calculations of the amount of produce and merchandise to be transported, are reasonable.

Connected with these details is another consideration incident to the increased facilities for travelling, which will be held out by this railway, and which will be of vast benefit to New-Orleans. We allude to the amount of money that will be left here, by travellers who come here as a starting point to go north or to the Pacific. The value of the business may in part be estimated from a fact within our own knowledge. The steamer Alabama, a few weeks since, brought here from Chagres 198 passengers. With an abundance of *dust*, they were all in want of clothing and supplies of every kind. One of our citizens, with no impertinent inquisitiveness, but with a laudable curiosity to ascertain facts to improve to our advantage, watched their movements, and from his own observation and information he obtained from the parties themselves, he arrived at the conclusion that each of these passengers expended in the city, on an average, \$75 to \$100. This sum was divided among the hotel keepers, money brokers, jewellers, dry goods men and clothing stores, and through these channels circulated through the community, and thus benefitting all classes.

As the travel on rail-roads is the principal source of profit, we will show in detail

what is the present and future continuity of the lines of railway from the Gulf of Mexico to the Atlantic cities. The following is a schedule of roads, distances, and the time consumed in travelling over them.

Distances from New-Orleans to New-York.

	Miles.	Hours.
New-Orleans to Mobile, - - - - -	160	10
Mobile to Girard, - - - - -	220	11
Girard to Fort Valley, - - - - -	70	3½
Fort Valley to Macon, - - - - -	25	1½
Macon to Augusta, - - - - -	160	8
Augusta to Branchville, - - - - -	73	3½
Branchville to Manchester, - - - - -	46	2½
Manchester to Wilmington, - - - - -	148	7½
Wilmington to New-York, - - - - -	594	29½
	<hr/> 14,196	<hr/> 76½

Mobile to Girard, by rail-road; Girard to Fort Valley, by Mascagee rail-road; Fort Valley to Macon, by the south-western rail-road; Macon to Brinsonville, by the Central Rail-Road; Brinsonville to Augusta, by the Augusta and Waynesbro' Rail-Road; Augusta to Branchville, by the South Carolina Rail-Road; Branchville to Manchester, by the Columbia and Camden Rail-Road; Manchester to Wilmington, by the Manchester and Wilmington Rail-Road; and from Wilmington by various ways to Maine.

The advantages, considered in a social point of view, to be derived from a free and easy intercommunication with all parts of the country, are inappreciable. With quick and cheap transit are associated many pleasures and comforts. Some require the facility of getting away from a climate incongenial to their health, to one more genial; with others the human affections are to be gratified, and friendly visits must be frequently interchanged; others need variety of scene, or pleasure, or rest for recreation from toil and labor; others avail themselves of easy transit to facilitate business operations; but with all quick and cheap communication to distant points is conducive to human happiness, convenience and profit. Another advantage of no minor consideration in these days, when the postal system is so much an element in the commercial world, is the facilities that this railway will furnish for the transmission of mail intelligence. At the common rate of railway speed, intelligence may be conveyed on a continuous line of rail-road from New York to New Orleans in less than four days. It is unnecessary to comment upon the benefits resulting from such close intercourse with distant correspondents—they are apparent to all. The rail-roads are "the proxies of men's clasping hands" knitting the affections together with "hooks of steel," or, to speak more literally, binding and welding them with iron bands.

In a political aspect, the construction of this road as "the last link in the chain of communication of the extreme south-west with the extreme north-east of our confederacy," is of primary consideration. In these times of agitation, the most effectual mode of suppressing sectional animosity, and promoting kindly feeling, is to bring the people of this widely extended country into close communion; to make them better acquainted. Want of communion, of free and cheap intercourse generates want of confidence, distrust of every kind, and bad blood:

"Lands intersected by a narrow faith
Abhor each other. Mountains interposed
Make enemies of nations, who had else
Like kindred drops been mingled into one."

This view of the matter suggests an idea growing out of the relations of the federal and state governments in regard to appropriations for works of internal improvement. We have before alluded to the grant made by the Senate of the United States, of alternate sections of the public lands to the Illinois railway. The precedent is a sufficient assurance to us that Congress will be equally liberal to the Girard Rail-Road; but there is superadded obligation imposed upon the government to aid this enterprise. It is well known that at Pensacola there is a navy yard, an extensive depot of military stores and munitions of every kind, and a very expensive fortress in progress of construction. This port is designed to be the key of the Gulf, the protection of the immense commerce of this great inland sea. In a case of emergency,

it could not be supplied with an effective force in twelve or fifteen days; build this road, and any amount of men from the interior could be poured into it in as many hours. The Girard Rail-Road will run within forty miles of Pensacola, and a road of as many miles will connect this important point with every part of the country.

N. O. Bulletin.

4. VICKSBURG AND JACKSON (MISS.) RAIL-ROAD.

When in Vicksburg last August, we took especial pains in inquiring into the condition of this work, and through the courtesies and attentions of the able and accommodating Treasurer, Col. Roach, were able to collect many interesting facts which want of space has hitherto prevented our incorporating in the Review. We shall furnish a part of them now, and hereafter, in an article upon Mississippi, for which we have collected abundant material, will recur to the subject.

"The Vicksburg Rail-Road extends from the city of Vicksburg, on the Mississippi River, eastward to Jackson, the capital of the State of Mississippi, a distance of forty-six miles. It was commenced in 1836 and finished in October, 1840. It is laid with Trail on cedar ties and post-oak sills; and although it has been in full operation for nearly ten years, and has transported more than 300,000 passengers, *not a single passenger has ever been injured on the road.*

"The rates of passage of this road are four and one-third cents per mile—nearly as low as those on any *good* road in the Middle and Northern States.

"Freights going eastward are received daily, Sunday excepted, at the Vicksburg dépôt, from 7 A. M. to 5 P. M. in the summer, from 8 A. M. to 4 P. M. in the winter, and freights for Vicksburg at all the other dépôts from 8 A. M. to sunset.

"The Southern Rail-Road, from Jackson to Brandon, fourteen miles long, owned by the state, but operated by the Vicksburg company, is the commencement of the great line of road intended to connect Vicksburg on the Mississippi and Charleston on the Atlantic.

"After the 1st July, 1850, the great mail will be carried by a line of first class four-horse post-coaches from Brandon, M.i. to Montgomery, Ala., and thence by rail-road to Charleston, S. C. This route will offer to Southern travellers one of the most eligible routes for travel eastward as regards speed, safety and economy.

TIME AND DISTANCE TABLE.

		Miles from Vicksburg.	Fare from Vicksburg.	Miles from Brandon.	Fare from Brandon.
Vicksburg,	-	—	—	60	\$2 75
Big Black,	-	12	\$0 50	48	2 25
Edwards',	-	17	80	43	1 95
Midway,	-	23	1 00	37	1 75
Bolton's,	-	27	1 20	33	1 55
Clinton,	-	36	1 50	24	1 25
Jackson,	-	46	2 00	14	75
Brandon,	-	60	2 75	—	—

ARTICLES OF FREIGHT SENT BY RAIL-ROAD FROM VICKSBURG EASTWARD.

		Year ending 1st Aug., 1848.	Year ending 1st Aug., 1849.
Iron, pounds,	- - -	344,451	1,387,979*
Sugar, "	- - -	721,810	811,717
Meat, "	- - -	1,811,628	1,687,588
Liquids generally, barrels,	- - -	3,350	2,923
Flour, "	- - -	8,197	10,436
Coffee, sacks,	- - -	2,886	3,087
Salt, "	- - -	8,285	10,402

* Increase caused by transport of Iron for Brandon Rail-Road.

	Year ending 1st Aug., 1848.	Year ending 1st Aug., 1849.
Bagging, pieces, - - -	2,736	3,774
Rope, coils, - - -	2,722	3,851
Lime and Cement, barrels, - -	1,008	1,147
Ice, " - - -	509	503*
Apples and Potatoes, " - -	3,523	4,173
Molasses, " - - -	1,570	1,484
Nails, kegs, - - -	1,797	1,861
Lard, " - - -	1,737	1,370
Candles, boxes, - - -	1,170	1,421
Soap and Starch, boxes, - - -	676	619
Tobacco, " - - -	932	999
Merchandise, " - - -	17,467	14,180
Miscellaneous packages, - - -	13,081	17,462†
Lumber, M. feet, - - -	146	146‡
Waggons, Buggies, &c., - -	130	95§

STATISTICS OF VICKSBURG AND JACKSON RAIL-ROAD.

PASSENGERS		RECEIPTS.	
For the year ending 1st August, 1847,	- 20,467	\$39,529 00	} Rate 6.52 per mile.
" " " " 1848,	- 20,533	39,437 84	
" " " " 1849,	- 26,261	31,758 75	
For 11 months ending 30th June, 1850,	- 32,022	37,846 05	} Rate 4.35 per mile.

NUMBER OF BALES OF COTTON RECEIVED BY RAIL-ROAD AT VICKSBURG.

Year ending 1st August, 1846,	- 52,857 bales.	
" " " " 1847,	- 34,904 " "	} Nom. crop.
" " " " 1848,	- 51,798 " "	
" " " " 1849,	- 59,682 " "	
11 months ending 1st July, 1850,	- 29,708 "	

The receipts this month will not reach 100 bales.

CORN TRANSPORTED FROM 1ST FEBRUARY TO 1ST JULY, 1850.

	Miles.	Bushels.	Price of Freight on Rail-Road.
Vicksburg to Brandon,	- 60	2,900	9 c. per bushel.
" " Jackson,	- 46	23,476	5 c. " "
" " Clinton,	- 36	14,513	5 c. " "
" " Bolton's,	- 27	8,868	4 c. " "
" " Edwards',	- 18	11,887	4 c. " "
" " Way Places,	- 12	750	3 c. " "
<hr/>			
62,394			

Amount paid rail-road for its transportation, \$2,973 15. Its weight, at 52 lbs. to the bushel, 3,244,488 lbs., or over 1,622 tons of 2,000 lbs. each. The average distance transported is over 38 miles, and allowing a good four-horse or six-ox team to carry 3,000 lbs., and to travel twenty miles a day, it would have required a hundred of such teams, constantly occupied for forty-four days, to effect the transport.

The cost of hauling by teams from Vicksburg to Clinton, before the construction of the rail-road, ranged from 40 to 125 c. per 100 lbs. If the lower rate be assumed, then the transport of the above amount of corn would cost

-	-	\$12,977 60
It actually paid by rail-road	-	2,973 15
		<hr/>
		\$10,004 45

Or if we estimate each team-driver, &c., at \$3 per day, then the cost would amount to \$13,200.

* This is merely the incidental supply; besides this, 100 to 150 tons are sent during the winter to supply the ice depots at Jackson.

† These cannot well be classed.

‡ This does not show the full transport of lumber, as the chief supply comes from Jackson and from Edwards to intermediate depots.

§ These numbers do not freely represent the carriages transported, for they are sometimes boxed and forwarded as merchandise.

COST OF SUPPORTING WORKMEN WITH PROVISIONS.

We introduce these figures to show with what economy labor may be supported in this region, and they should have some bearing in discussing the questions of manufactures here :

Cost of Feeding Men on the Vicksburg and Jackson Rail-Road.

For the 6 months ending 1st Sept., 1848, average cost of each man per month,	\$2 33
" " " 1st Mar., 1849, " " " " "	2 63
" " " 1st Sept., 1849, " " " " "	2 79
" " " 1st Mar., 1850, " " " " "	2 72
4, - - - - -	\$10 47

Average per month for two years for each man, - - - - - \$2 62
 The ration consists of bacon, flour, molasses, coffee, sugar, beans, tobacco, rice, potatoes, meal, salt.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1. PRODUCE OF THE INTERIOR RECEIVED AT NEW-ORLEANS
1849-50.

A Table showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior during the year ending 31st August, 1850, with their estimated average and total value.

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value. Dollars.	Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value. Dollars.
Apples,..... bbls.	37,244	\$3 00	111,732	Leather,.... bundles	5,233	25 00	130,825
Bacon, ass'd, hhds. & casks	38,336	40 00	1,533,440	Lime, Western, . bbls	32,060	90	28,854
Bacon, ass'd,.... bxs	28,941	20 00	578,820	Lead,..... pigs	415,400	3 00	1,246,200
Bacon Hams, hhds. & tierces	19,335	45 00	870,075	Lead, bar, kgs. & bxs	631	18 00	11,358
Bacon, in bulk,.... lbs	209,045	5	10,452	Molasses, (estimated crop,)..... gallons	12,000,000	20	2,400,000
Bagging,..... pieces	58,321	14 00	816,494	Oats, . bbls. and sacks	325,795	1 00	325,795
Bale Rope,..... coils	86,104	8 00	688,832	Onions,..... barrels	13,024	2 00	26,048
Beans,..... barrels	9,307	3 00	27,921	Oil, Linseed, .. "	1,098	30 00	32,940
Butter, kgs and firkins	51,058	4 00	204,232	Oil, Castor,.... "	2,091	70 00	146,370
Butter,..... barrels	1,772	20 00	35,440	Oil, Lard,..... "	14,712	24 00	353,088
Beeswax,..... "	367	40 00	14,680	Potatoes,..... "	166,003	2 00	332,006
Beef,..... "	49,473	9 00	445,257	Pork, tes. and barrels	543,694	9 50	5,165,093
Beef,..... tierces	15,798	15 00	236,970	Pork,..... boxes	15,695	20 00	313,900
Beef, dried,.... lbs	48,219	6	2,893	Pork,..... hhds	13,968	40 00	558,720
Buffalo Robes,.... packs	358	65 00	23,270	Pork, in bulk,.... lbs	15,862,431	3 75	594,841
Cotton,..... bales	837,723	50 00	41,886,150	Porter and Ale, barrels	804	8 00	6,432
Corn Meal,.... barrels	5,187	2 75	14,264	Packing Yarn,.... reels	4,131	6 00	24,786
Corn, in ear,.... "	42,719	90	38,447	Skins, Deer,.... packs	1,375	25 00	34,375
Corn, shelled,.... sacks	1,114,897	1 40	1,560,855	Skins, Bear,.... "	37	15 00	555
Cheese,..... boxes	62,809	3 00	188,427	Shot,..... kegs	4,435	20 00	88,700
Candles,..... "	55,306	6 00	331,836	Soap,..... boxes	9,930	3 00	29,790
Cider,..... barrels	903	3 00	2,709	Staves,..... M.	6,000	35 00	210,000
Coal, Western, .. "	600,000	45	270,000	Sugar (estimated crop) hhds	247,923	50 00	12,396,150
Dried Apples and Peaches,.... barrels	2,999	3 00	8,997	Spanish Moss,.... bales	4,337	6 00	26,022
Feathers,..... bags	5,900	30 00	177,000	Tallow,..... barrels	4,862	20 00	97,240
Flaxseed,.... tierces	217	10 00	2,170	Tobacco, Leaf, . hhds	79,404	\$100	4,790,400
Flour,..... barrels	591,986	5 75	3,403,919	Tobacco, Strips, hhds	9,400	140	1,316,000
Furs, hhds. bbls and boxes	444	400,000	Tobacco, Stems, hhds	3,000	20 00	60,000
Hemp,..... bales	34,792	20 00	695,840	Tobacco, Chewing, kgs. & bxs	2,021	20 00	40,420
Hides,..... "	43,542	1 25	54,427	Twine, bdl. and bxs	2,118	12 00	25,416
Hay,..... bales	56,258	4 00	225,032	Vinegar,.... barrels	180	5 00	900
Iron, pig,..... tons	20	25 00	500	Whiskey,.... "	117,753	9 00	1,059,777
Lard,..... hhds	215	00 00	12,900	Window Glass, boxes	4,887	5 00	24,435
Lard,.... bbls. and tes	228,019	18 00	4,104,342	Wheat,.... barrels and sacks	57,508	2 00	115,016
Lard,..... kegs	302,366	3 00	907,098	Other various articles, estimated at...	5,000,000		
				Total value,.....	\$96,897,873		
				Total in 1848-49,.....	81,989,692		
				Total in 1847-48,.....	79,779,151		
				Total in 1846-47,.....	90,033,256		

2. ANNUAL COTTON STATEMENT; CROP, 1849-50.

EXPORTS TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM UNITED STATES,

FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1849, TO AUGUST 31, 1850.

From	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North of Europe.	Other Foreign Ports.	Total.
New-Orleans,.....bales..	397,189	117,413	25,196	84,950	624,748
Mobile,.....	162,219	39,968	11,977	214,164
Florida,.....	39,594	7,165	2,175	48,934
Texas,.....	513	513
Georgia,.....	137,185	14,110	1,848	153,143
South Carolina,.....	165,623	33,082	8,944	9,922	227,571
North Carolina,.....
Virginia,.....	133	50	183
Baltimore,.....	202	230	432
Philadelphia,.....	3,454	599	4,053
New-York,.....	200,113	85,054	27,726	1,907	314,800
Boston,.....	670	914	21	1,614
Grand total,.....	1,136,771	289,627	72,156	121,601	1,590,155
Total last year,.....	1,537,901	368,259	165,458	156,226	2,227,844
Decrease,.....	431,130	78,632	93,302	34,625	637,689

GROWTH.

Crop of 1823-4,....bales..	509,158	1832-3,....bales..	1,070,438	1841-2,....bales..	1,623,574
1824-5,.....	569,249	1833-4,.....	1,205,394	1842-3,.....	2,378,875
1825-6,.....	720,027	1834-5,.....	1,254,328	1843-4,.....	2,030,409
1826-7,.....	957,281	1835-6,.....	1,360,725	1844-5,.....	2,394,503
1827-8,.....	720,593	1836-7,.....	1,422,930	1845-6,.....	2,100,537
1828-9,.....	857,744	1837-8,.....	1,801,497	1846-7,.....	1,778,651
1829-30,.....	976,845	1838-9,.....	1,360,532	1847-8,.....	2,347,634
1830-1,.....	1,038,848	1839-40,.....	2,177,835	1848-9,.....	2,728,596
1831-2,.....	987,477	1840-1,.....	1,634,945	1849-50,.....	2,090,706

CONSUMPTION.

Total crop of the United States as above stated,.....	bales..	2,096,700
Add—		
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, 1st Sept. 1849:		
In the southern ports,.....	72,468	
In the northern ports,.....	82,285	
		154,753
Makes a supply of,.....		2,251,459
Deduct therefrom:—		
The export to foreign ports,.....	1,590,155	
Less foreign included,.....	1,341	
		1,588,814
Stocks on hand, 1st September, 1850:		
In the southern ports,.....	91,754	
In the northern ports,.....	76,176	
		167,930
Burnt at New York and Charleston,.....	6,946	
		1,763,690
Taken for home use,.....	bales..	487,769

QUANTITY CONSUMED BY AND IN THE HANDS OF HOME MANUFACTURERS.

1849-50,.....bales..	487,769	1841-2,.....bales..	267,850	1833-4,.....bales..	196,413
1848-9,.....	518,039	1840-1,.....	297,288	1832-3,.....	194,412
1847-8,.....	531,772	1839-40,.....	295,193	1831-2,.....	173,800
1846-7,.....	427,967	1838-9,.....	276,018	1830-1,.....	182,142
1845-6,.....	422,597	1837-8,.....	246,063	1829-30,.....	126,512
1844-5,.....	389,006	1836-7,.....	232,540	1828-9,.....	118,853
1843-4,.....	346,744	1835-6,.....	236,733	1827-8,.....	120,593
1842-3,.....	325,129	1834-5,.....	216,888	1826-7,.....	149,516

In our last annual statement, the estimate of cotton taken for consumption for the year ending September 1, 1849, in the states south and west of Virginia, was probably over-estimated; the following for the past year is believed to be very nearly correct. The number of mills has increased since that time and are still increasing, but the quantity consumed as far as we can learn, is, owing to high prices, &c., less than the year previous. The following estimate is from a judicious and careful observer at the South, of the quantity so consumed and not included in the receipts. Thus, in—

	Mills.	Spindles.	Quantity consumed.
North Carolina,.....	30	20,000 bales.
South Carolina,.....	16	36,500	15,000 "
Georgia,.....	36	51,150	27,000 "
Alabama,.....	11	16,960	6,000 "
Tennessee,.....	30	36,000	12,000 "
On the Ohio, &c.,.....	30	102,230	27,500 "
Total to September 1, 1850,.....			107,500 bales.
" " 1849,.....			110,000 "
" " 1848,.....			75,000 "

To which should be added the stocks in the interior towns, the quantity burnt in the interior, and that lost on its way to market; these, added to the crop as given above, received at the shipping ports, will show very nearly the amount raised in the United States the past season; say, in round numbers, 2,212,000 bales.

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports up to the 1st inst., amounted to about 255 bales, against about 575 bales last year.

The shipments given in this statement from Texas, are those by sea only; a considerable portion of the crop of that state finds its way to market via Red River, and is included in the receipts at New-Orleans.—*New-York Shipping List.*

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

JEPHTHA'S VOW.

BY CHARLES H. ALLEN.

The fiery conflict now is o'er,
And many a warrior in his gore
Lies mangled on the battle-field,
Beside his sword and trusted shield.
Bold hearts, which once with courage beat,
Are press'd beneath the conquerors' feet,
And dying groans are heard afar,
Unheeded 'midst the shriek of war.
See squadrons charge and squadrons wheel!
They trample o'er the dead, nor feel
A moment's pang, or drop a tear,
At all the horrid carnage here.

But hark! what means that song of praise,
Which Israel's hosts exulting raise?
Ah! 'tis that victory crowns the fight,
For lo! afar the Ammorite
Doth speed away his rapid flight,
Nor heeds he now his comrades dead,
Who for their chieftain fought and bled.

The day is thine, stern Jephtha, now!
Go and perform thy solemn vow;
Upon the blazing altar high
Go lay the first who, drawing nigh,
With smiles would greet and bid thee come
Victorious to thy stately home.

Hush'd is the song of joy, and yet
A settled gloom still seems to set
Upon the aged hero's brow;
For in his mind that awful vow
Oft he recalls, and dreads to know
Whose sacrificial blood shall flow.
Amid contending hopes and fears,
The timbrel and a song he hears.
Whose is that voice, so soft, so sweet,
That comes the hero thus to greet?

Ah! read it in his eye so wild—
'Tis Jephtha's fair and only child!
The father saw that beauteous one,
And o'er his soul a horror run;
He madly rent his clothes and cried,
"Oh! would, my daughter, I had died
On yonder bloody field away,
Or that the foe had gained the day;
For I have vow'd, and thou must die,
A sacrifice to Deity!"

"Let it be done," she meekly said;
"Oh, let thine only child be laid
Upon the sacred altar now,
And thus fulfil that solemn vow;
But grant me first this last request—
That I upon yon mountain's crest,
With these my fellows, ere I die,
Bewail my virgin purity."

And now these mourning days are o'er,
And Jephtha's beauteous child no more
Will cheer that broken heart,
Or bear in dance or song a part:
For see the kindling flames prepar'd,
And that fair victim's bosom bared,
Whilst by her side the father stands,
And inly mourns that his own hands
Must slay his child—his only one.
But ah! he strikes—the deed is done!
And his ill-fated daughter dies
A strange, a horrid sacrifice!
And Judah's daughters yearly wept
Upon the mountain-side, and kept
In sad remembrance those days,
By singing oft in mournful lays
The fate of the fair Gileadite,
Who perished in a bloody rite.

Abbeville, S. C.

WHY WEARS THY BROW A SHADE?

BY EDWARD J. PORTER.

Why wears thy brow a shadow,
 When all around is bright,
 And only Pleasure's breathings
 Float through the halls to-night;
 When Beauty's stars are gleaming,
 In all their light arrayed,
 And Joy her lute hath shaken—
 Why wears thy brow a shade?

When the South wind's breathings bear us
 Soft perfumes on its wings,
 And the fresh green leaves are trembling

To their spirit-murmurings;
 When the fountain's song of gladness
 Is swelling through the glade,
 And all is joy around thee—
 Why wears thy brow a shade?

When the bright and joyous mingle,
 Like flowerets in a wreath,
 And light and song are blended,
 As the odors that they breathe,
 While the moments that are gliding
 On Pleasure's shrine are laid
 By those, like thee, the lovely—
 Why wears thy brow a shade?

Kingstree, S. C.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

I. GREAT INDUSTRIAL FAIRS IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES.

THE power above the throne, and which is ruling the world, can be discerned in nothing more clearly than the Industrial Conventions and Fairs which are annually taking place in every quarter.

I. EXHIBITION OF THE WORKS OF INDUSTRY OF ALL NATIONS IN LONDON, MAY, 1851.—A Central Committee for the United States has been established at Washington, through whom only can any articles be sent for exhibition to the great Fair. Peter Force, Esq., President of the National Institute, is chairman of the committee. There will be a committee in each of the states, appointed by the governor, who shall pronounce upon the fitness of articles for exhibition, and communicate with the Central Committee. No other articles than those properly endorsed by the Central Committee will be received at the Fair. Products will be received from the first of January to the first of March. A building covering sixteen to twenty acres will be provided. A prize fund of £20,000 will be distributed in premiums. The objects for exhibition are thus classified, and will be received into England without payment of duties as warehouse or re-export goods. Pamphlets containing full particulars will be supplied by the Central Committee, located at Washington.

Classified Lists of Products.

I. Raw Materials and Produce—illustrative of the natural products on which human industry is employed.

II. Machinery for Agricultural, Manufacturing, Engineering and other purposes, and Mechanical Inventions—illustrative of the agents which human ingenuity brings to bear upon the products of nature.

III. Manufactures—illustrative of the result produced by the operations of human industry upon natural produce.

IV. Sculpture, Models, and the Plastic Art generally—illustrative of the taste and skill displayed in such applications of human industry.

2. INTERNATIONAL FAIR IN NEW-YORK.—There are two propositions in regard to this. By the first it is suggested that an arrangement be made by means of which all the articles exhibited at the London Fair in May shall be transported to the United States, and held on exhibition here early in the summer. The plan appears to meet with great favor, and could no doubt be carried out. Another proposition, if indeed the two may not be combined together, is that suggested by the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, of New-York, who has now a reputation wide as the Republic for being the friend of industry and the working man, the liberal benefactor of every enterprise tending to elevate the laboring classes and pursuits of the nation. The matter is now in the hands of the Mechanics' Institute, New-York, who have issued a circular to all disposed to co-operate, signed Zadoc Pratt, of Prattsville, C. S. Woodhull, Mayor of New-York, and Wm. Kemble, of the West Point Foundry.

3. THE GREAT FAIR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE, NEW-YORK.—The month of October is as usual set aside, and preparations are already in progress in Castle Garden. These are the most magnificent exhibitions of industrial products ever made in America, and are attended by hundreds of thousands of visitors. We have ourselves been present on one occasion, and hope to be so again the coming month.

4. SOUTHERN MECHANICS' AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE, CHARLESTON.—The second annual fair will be held in Charleston on the 18th of November, 1850, and continue one week. Productions are invited from all the Southern and

South-Western States. In addition to premiums for mechanics and manufacturers, the following others will be awarded:

For the best bale Sea Island Cotton, not less than 300 lbs. Do. Short Staple.
 For the best Tierce of Rice.
 " " Hhd. Muscovado Sugar.
 " " Leaf Tobacco, not less than 100 lbs.
 " " Barrel Wheat Flour.
 " " Tierce Indian Corn.
 " " Barrel Spirits Turpentine.
 " " Barrel of Rosin.

It is intended to send the premium articles and some selections to the great London Fair.

We have great hope that this Charleston exhibition will prove a most brilliant move, and that every Southern state will be fully represented. It is time that the South should, in some *systematic and organized* manner, promote the advances of her manufacturing industry, which is destined in time to be as important as her agricultural. The circular of the committee is signed by

G. N. REYNOLDS, Jun.,
 C. D. CARR,
 WM. LEBBY.

Articles must reach Charleston by 14th November, directed to L. M. Hatch. Communications will be addressed to James H. Taylor. Hon. J. H. Lumpkin, of Georgia, will deliver the annual address. The South Carolina R. R. Company charge freight only one way on articles sent to the fair.

5. GREAT SOUTHERN AND WESTERN FAIR, NEW-ORLEANS.—This has been suggested by us in one of our late numbers, and we mention it here as one of the objects which should receive attention in this wide and growing section of our Union. The West, as well as the South-West, are becoming great and growing seats of manufacturing enterprise, and we know of no points better adapted to the meeting of a manufacturers' convention, or the arrangement of a fair. We shall be glad to hear suggestions, and to hold correspondence upon this subject with whoever may be willing to take it up in earnest. With an effort we have every guarantee of success.

II. VITAL STATISTICS OF NEW-ORLEANS.

In our August number we published the statistics of Drs. Barton and Simonds, showing a very high mortality in New-Orleans, and acknowledged ourselves convinced of the truth of the statements maintained by them. Since that time Dr. Simonds has published a series of papers in the same connection, to which we have looked in vain for a reply from any of the medical men of the city. As we have no other object but truth, we insert an extract from Dr. S.'s tables, in order to stimulate investigation. Our pages are open to the discussion.

The mortality of New-Orleans is given on three estimates of population, the lowest of which, 100,000, I believe to be the most correct. The mortality is also calculated, deducting the cholera, which is proper, as the deaths are those of but a

single year, though the deaths from cholera in Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Charleston, are included in the calculated mortality of those cities. For a comparison of the mortality of different places, periods of time not less than ten years should be taken. I have not been able to obtain for this city for a longer period than one year, data in such a form as to be available for a complete investigation. If tables similar to that furnished by Dr. Barton were prepared for a series of years, more accurate, and we hope, more favorable results would be obtained.

TABLE.

Showing the average number dying annually in each ten thousand of the living.

* Manchester, males,	365
“ “ females,	331
* Liverpool, males,	353
“ “ females,	315
* London, males,	274
“ “ females,	251
† Twenty-six Cities of England, 4 years,	271
† Twelve Counties “ “ 4 years,	190
‡ Massachusetts, 1847-8,	159
§ Boston, 1830-45,	922
¶ New-York, 1805-36,	276
† “ “ 1841-6,	297
** Philadelphia, 1807-40,	251
†† Charleston, 1822-48,	249
N. O., 1849—population 100,000,	986
“ “ “ 125,000,	822
“ “ “ 150,000,	657
“ “ “ 100,000, Cholera ded.,	638
“ “ “ 125,000, “ “ “	548
“ “ “ 150,000, “ “ “	439

It will be seen that even on the most favorable estimate the mortality of this city greatly exceeds that of any other city of the United States, and even exceeds that of the densely populated cities of England. The factories of Manchester, the cellars of Liverpool, the pauperism and vice of London, furnish, comparatively, fewer victims to disease than this city, whose health has been, for years, a subject of boast and misrepresentation. In truth, our mortality is treble that of Boston, and more than double that of New-York, of Philadelphia, and of the twenty-six largest cities of England.

The table presents a most deplorable picture of the sanitary state of New-Orleans. After the deduction of cholera, the total mortality is double that of the cities of England and of New York, and an excess prevails in nearly every class of disease. The unspecified cases are nearly ten times as numerous as in New York, which indicates the want of medical assistance and the little attention bestowed upon this very important subject. The deaths from Zymotic diseases (cholera deducted) are more than three times as numerous as in England, and two and a half times as numerous as in New-York. Sporadic diseases cause here fifty per cent. more deaths than in New York. External causes produce twice as many deaths as in New-York, and three times as many as in England. Diseases of the nervous system are twice, and of the digestive system two and a-half times as frequent as in New-York. The still-born are nearly twice as numerous as compared with the aggregate population; how they would compare with the number of births we have no means of determining. Violent deaths, (casualties) and Exopathic causes are more than twice as frequent. Of old age we have fewer deaths, which of course is against us. Diseases of the respiratory sys-

* McCulloch, British Empire. . . . † Dr. Jarvis, on Vital Force, Appendix. . . . ‡ Calculated from Registration Reports. . . . § Calculated from Tables in "Census of Boston." . . . ¶ Calculated from Am. Jour. Med. Sciences, XXII. . . . ** Calculated from Am. Jour. Sciences, I, IX, N. S. XVI. . . . †† Calculated from "Census of Charleston."

tem, and Monoxymal diseases are the only important classes in our favor, and that not very materially.*

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1. FROM HARPER AND BROTHERS, THROUGH J. B. STEEL.

1. *The Past, Present and Future of the Republic.* By Lamartine.—In this little work Mr. Lamartine compares the republic of 1795 with that of 1848, and shows why the latter is called democratic, and not social. He then passes to the foreign relations of the republic and its financial condition, concluding with the organization of universal suffrage. He says, in the introduction, he has the idea of recapitulating briefly, for the use of those who have not time to read every morning the innumerable swarm of public journals, the principal events since the foundation of the republic, of analysing the ideas, the doctrines, the opinions, the illusions, the truths, which dispute possession of the intelligence of the masses.

2. *Railway Economy in Europe and America.* By Dr. Lardner.—We design an elaborate review of this valuable work in our next, and meanwhile commend it to all who are interested in the extension of the internal improvement system of our country. The volume contains 33 chapters, and discusses influence of improved transport on civilization, organization of railway and railway progress, locomotive power, carrying stock, stations, passenger traffic, goods traffic, expenses, receipts, tariffs, profits, accidents on railways, electric telegraph, inland transport in the United States, Belgian, French, German, Russian, Italian and Spanish railways, comparison of railway transport in different countries, relation of railways to the state, etc., etc.

3. *Five Years in the Far Interior of South Africa*, with notices of the Native Tribes, and Anecdotes of the Chase of the Lion, Elephant, Hippopotamus, Giraffe, Rhinoceros, etc., by Roualeyn Cumming, Esq., with illustrations, in 2 vols. This is an elegant work, and one of liveliest interest throughout. The author spent many years in the wilderness, and says: "Whatever on those occasions I witnessed worthy of attention, I noted in my journal while the impressions were fresh in my memory. From this journal the following work is almost literally transcribed. If I have in simple language given pleasure to the sportsman or added one page to the natural history of South Africa or to our knowledge of the tribes, I shall think myself amply repaid for my many wanderings and watchings in a wild and savage land."

* The number of deaths in New-York in 1849 was 22,372, of which 5,072 were by Cholera. The total number in 1848, 14,618. Of the 22,372 in 1849, 13,300 only were Americans. The number of Irish was 5,968. Therefore the mortality of 1849, including Cholera, was one in sixteen, or 6.2 per cent., supposing the population to be 350,000, which it exceeds.

4. *Progress of Astronomy*, especially in the United States, by Elias Loomis. The work discusses recent additions to our knowledge of the planetary system, Neptune, Asteroids, etc., recent additions to our knowledge of comets, astronomical expeditions, observatories, telescopes, progress, etc.

5. *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, by Ed. Gibbon, Esq., with Notes by Rev. H. H. Milman; a new edition, with complete index of the whole work, in six volumes. We have received Vols. V. and VI. of this valuable work, bound in muslin, and uniform with Harpers' edition of Hume and Macaulay.

We acknowledge the receipt of the proof-sheets of a new work upon Louisiana, by our friend Charles Gayarré, Esq., and also the proofs of the *New-Orleans Book*, containing extracts from the various writers of the city, by our friend Robert G. Barnwell, Esq., of Louisiana, both of which shall be noticed in our next.

Should any books sent to us by publishers not be noticed in this number, they shall not be neglected when we appear again. We invite them all to forward their publications as they issue from the press.

2. BOOKS FROM APPLETON & CO., NEW-YORK.

1. *Ollendorff's New Grammar*, for the Germans to learn English, by P. Gands. This work will be highly esteemed by our German fellow citizens.

2. *Key to Ollendorff's Grammar for Germans to learn English.*

3. *Select Orations of M. Tullius Cicero*, with notes for the use of Schools and Colleges, by E. A. Johnson of the University of New-York. This volume is in the cheap style of Appleton's classical series.

4. *The Prelude, or Growth of a Poet's Mind: An Autobiographical Poem*, by William Wordsworth. This poem was written about the year 1805, and published in 1814, being intended as an introduction to the *Recluse*. The volume is handsomely issued and is divided into fourteen chapters, which go over an interesting period of the poet's life.

5. *George Castriot, Surnamed Scanderbeg, King of Albania*, by Clement C. Moore, L.L. D. The author tells us, he was first induced to write the life of Scanderbeg, the heroic prince of Epire and scourge of the Turks, by reading Johnson's *Rambler*, thus furnishing an account of an extraordinary person whose life and exploits afford a real narrative, as interesting, if not more so, than most of the works of fiction, etc., of the day.

6. *Lives of Eminent Literary and Scientific Men of America*, by James Wynne, M. D. This work, which will no doubt be continued in volumes, contains biographies of Franklin, Johna-

than Edwards, Fulton, Chief Justice Marshall, Rittenhouse and Eli Whitney.

7. *Dictionary of Mechanics, Engine Work and Engineering*, Nos. 17 and 18, are just issued at the cheap rate of 25 cents each. This is one of the most valuable publications of the day. By Oliver Byrne.

3. FROM J. B. STEEL, NEW-ORLEANS.

1. *Notes from Nineveh and Travels from Mesopotamia, Assyria and Syria*, by Rev. J. P. Fletcher: Philadelphia, Lea & Blanchard.—This is the work of a gentleman who visited the East in 1842, as lay associate of a clergyman, who was about to proceed on a mission of enquiry into the present state of religion and literature among the ancient christian churches of the East. The author has given many interesting particulars of all the countries visited, interspersed with discussions interesting to theologians.

2. *Propositions Concerning Protection and Free Trade*, by Willard Phillips: Boston, Little & Brown.—This little volume contains a systematic attack upon the doctrines of the economists and upon free trade in particular. Many persons will be curious to see such a work, which in the main is well written.

3. *Cuba and the Cubans; comprising a History of the Island, its present Social, Political and Domestic Condition, also its relation to England and the United States, with an Appendix: New-York, G. P. Putnam*.—Such a work was much needed just now, but although it contains many interesting particulars, it does not altogether supply the want. We do not like the spirit with which the author treats some of his predecessors in the same field and from whom he borrows largely. The work favors the Cuban American party.

4. *The Hungarian Revolution, with Biographical Sketches of the leading Statesmen and Generals engaged in it*, by Johan Pragay, Col. in the Hungarian Army: G. P. Putnam, New-York.—This work we have previously noticed.

5. *Unity of the Human Races, Proved to be the Doctrine of Scripture, Reason and Science, with a review of the present position and theory of Prof. Agassiz*, by the Rev. Thomas Smyth, D. D.: G. P. Putnam, New-York.—In our August Number, when speaking of the various publications which this subject has of late elicited, we neglected to mention the present volume, which indeed we had not then received. The author is well known to publishers as one of the most indomitable writers of the day, and has made more books in the same time, than perhaps any man in America. We had no idea he would have ventured into this field to contend with such men as Morton, Agassiz, Bachman and Nott. However, he has done it, and we have seen him handled somewhat roughly in the Democratic Review, etc. He has also been praised in other quarters, and the author tells us the work was elicited by the

discussions of the Charleston Literary Club and by the Lectures of Dr. Nott. The substance of the work was contributed in a series of papers to various religious journals. The volume in many respects is an interesting one and deserves consideration.

6. LOUISIANA LAW BOOKS—J. B. STEEL.

1. *Reports of Supreme Court*, 12 vols., 1841 to 1846, by M. M. Robinson, Esq.

2. *Martin's Reports*, comprising Orleans Reports, 1 and 2, and Louisiana Reports, No. 1, with Marginal References, by Thomas G. Morgan, 1 vol.

3. *Greiner's Code of Practice*, new edition.

4. *Benjamin and Slidell's Digest*, enlarged.

5. *Deslitz's Digest*; a continuation of Benjamin and Slidell.

6. *Deslitz's Supreme Court General Index and Digest*, from 1809 to 1843.

The prices of all these law works have been considerably reduced, by Mr. Steel.

FROM B. M. NORMAN.

Fenner's Southern Medical Reports.—We refer the reader to our notice of this valuable work in the August Number, and to the extracts made from it in September. Other extracts we shall hereafter furnish, and our object now is to commend the book to the planters as eminently deserving of their favor. Though invaluable to the medical profession, it will be valuable in every private family. The volume contains 500 pages, with maps and illustrations, and is intended to be published in an annual series, embracing all of the Southern states. Full mortuary statistics of white and negro population will be included, and every thing tending to sanitary ameliorations. Terms, bound volumes, \$3 cash. Paper covers, \$2 50, (for mailing.) Address, E. D. Fenner, M. D., New-Orleans. To favor our friend, Dr. Fenner, we will ourselves execute orders for the work, if requested.

THE SOUTHERN LITERARY MESSENGER.

This interesting Southern Monthly which has so long been published in Richmond, Virginia, and which is one of the first works of the kind in our country, continues to reach our table. It is deserving of the widest patronage from all disposed to promote Southern literature, and is conducted by John R. Thompson, Esq., Richmond, at five dollars per annum.

The August number contains—1. The world before the Flood; from our Paris correspondent; Homes of the Poets; Rydal Mount; Study of the Classics; Thoughts on Cicero; Seldons of Sherwood, chapters 35 and 36; Works on Hungary; Extracts from MSS.; Thoughts on English Poetry; Letters from New-York.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

11. "Lord! Keep my Memory Green." By Mrs. Anna Poyre Dinwiddie. 12. Flowers. By Charles Wood. 13. Lines to a Friend Inviting

me to Town. 14. James River. By Wm. H. Holcombe. 15. Lines. 16. From the German of Herder. Don Alonzo Perez Guzmán der Getreue. 17. To An Invalid Wife. By Sidney Dyer.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

A Presidential Funeral—"The Cause of the South"—Death of Sarah Margaret Fuller—Mr. James and Miss Bremer.

NOTICES OF NEW WORKS.

History of the Polk Administration; The Shoulder Knot; Sketches of Travel in Egypt and the Holy Land; The Conquest of Canada; Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution; Railway Economy.

See Book Notices on third page of cover.

The Editor appends the following notice in compliance with repeated requests which have come in upon him ever since his connection with the Messenger. The Editor announces that he shall commence in the next number the republication of Judith Bensaddi, a tale by Henry Ruffer, D. D., which appeared in this magazine several years ago. The original edition being out of print, persons desirous of securing a copy of the story will best do so by sending their names as subscribers to the Messenger.

Exchange papers will do us a favor by alluding to the foregoing notice.

THE CAUSE OF THE SOUTH.

The article with this caption by us in our July number, seems to have been misunderstood by several leading Southern presses, and we have been censured very much about it. A refusal will satisfy any one the charge against us is groundless, and in letters to the *Charleston Mercury* and *Southern Press*, we have made this appear as it is to be hoped satisfactorily. That article was written in part ironically, but in the main under feelings of much depression growing out of Southern apathy or distraction. God knows the South has no son truer to her cause than ourselves, and none who would be found more willing to do or to dare in her behalf, whatever her exigencies may at any time require. Her cause is our cause—her destiny ours. Let us then not be misunderstood.

TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS, &c.

Is our last number were enclosed bills and prospectuses, which we hope will meet with favorable consideration and attention. As the bills were made out in the absence of the Editor from New Orleans, it is possible errors may have occurred, etc. The bills sent by us personally in April, May and June last, are correct with the addition of five dollars to each for the year ending January or July, 1851. We entreat prompt remittances, in our greatly enlarged expenses, and to prevent the heavy commissions to agents. The Review is now the largest monthly in the United States, and the expense in four months is as great as that of the Quarterly's in a whole year.

The Editor regrets his list has not increased in proportion to the improvements and expenses which have been added to the Review. Will not subscribers exert themselves with the

prospectus we send them in adding new names. To those who have already done this, and the number is quite considerable, our most grateful thanks are offered. Would all do as much, the list would be speedily doubled. Let Southern men reflect with what liberality Northern works are supported. Harpers' New Monthly Magazine in New York has already forty thousand circulation, and increasing at an immense ratio! This in a few months.

Ill health occasioned the absence of the Editor during the summer from New-Orleans, which is the reason for some delays in the issue of the August and September numbers, and will account for any mistakes in the distribution. Should such occur they will be gladly rectified. It is believed that a few July numbers were sent in place of August. Subscribers will therefore examine, and where it has occurred, return the July, when the August will be sent.

To the same reason as above may be ascribed a deficiency in editorial matter and in the Literary Department, a reason which has now ceased to exist, which the editor hopes will be seen in the ensuing numbers.

LIBRARY EDITION OF DE BOWS REVIEW.

8 VOLUMES, 1845—1850, HANDSOMELY BOUND IN SINGLE OR DOUBLE VOLUMES. PRICE PER SET, SINGLE VOLUMES, \$25.

PRICE PER SET DOUBLE VOLUMES, 4 YEARS, \$24.

AND SO ON FOR FUTURE VOLUMES.

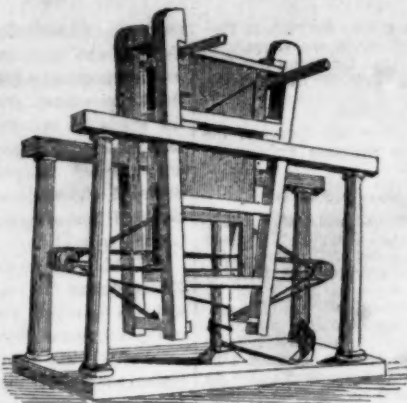
A very few sets remain still, and the editor solicits orders from all persons forming libraries, or who would have upon their tables and shelves a magazine of information upon every subject connected with the industry and population of the Southern and Western States, together with the leading particulars that relate to the Union at large. It is from the sale of these sets the editor hopes to be reimbursed for the early losses sustained in publishing the Review, and he appeals to friends for their influence in obtaining orders. Persons from the country when in the city will do well to call at our office, 22 Exchange Place, and examine these volumes, though it is believed the merits of the work are now sufficiently tested every where, judging from the large and growing circulation.

Sets of the work will be delivered in any of the large cities or towns, without any expense to the person ordering, viz.: in Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Charleston, Mobile, Savannah, Vicksburg, Memphis, St. Louis, Cincinnati, etc.

Orders on factors payable on sale of crop, if acknowledged, will be received as cash. Subscribers may always remit money to us by mail in any good bank notes or in gold, without waiting for the call of the agent, which will be a great saving to us and no expense to them.

M'Comb's Labor-Saving Press, Patented Feb. 27, 1849.

THIS Press has proved to be unprecedentedly successful as to speed, ease, and convenience. Its ease is such that less than half a horse-power is required to run five hundred pounds of cotton up to twenty-two inches. Its speed is such that six hands can make fifty bales in a day, and ordinary work of five hands is three bales to the hour, and less than one hour's work of the horse is necessary to make fifty bales. Its convenience is such that hands never have cotton thrown into the box overhead, nor ever have their heads within the box, consequently it is much less oppressive to hands than any OTHER PRESS.



Its durability will probably be ten times that of any other PRESS, and it is adapted to almost any gin house. The subscriber is prepared to take orders for this press, to be erected on the plantation—the planter furnishing all wood material on the spot, and assistance of two servant men to assist whilst the work is doing, and board hands and horses, and paying freight on iron, at the following rates:

For a No. 1 Press, which has solid iron drivers, \$275 00.

No. 2 Press, which has all iron joints and wooden drivers, \$250 00.

No. 3 Press, which has iron toggle or elbow joint, and works in wood at top and bottom, \$200 00.

No. 4 Press, which has iron bearings at toggle joint, and works in wood at top and bottom, \$185 00.

These prices include the irons, nails, ropes, and wood-work. He is also prepared to furnish the iron, nails, &c., not including rope, at the following rates:—

For No. 1 irons, including right to use and working plan, \$150 00; No. 2, \$125 00; No. 3, \$85 00; No. 4, \$75 00. Individual rights, (with accurately drawn working plans, by which any good workman can erect the press,) at \$40 00 each.

The number has reference to the character or kind of irons, and not to the size, ease, speed, or convenience, and the comparative durability is yet to be determined, as the oldest press of this kind, which is No. 4, has worked on only three crops. The general opinion is that either number will last ten times as long as even the iron screw.

Having made arrangements for the manufacture and shipment of these PRESSES complete, with a view to supplying the increasing demand, they will be furnished at a convenient point for shipment at the same price that is charged for them on the plantation, the purchaser paying freight and charges. This enables the planter to get his PRESS without trouble, and at a cost of perhaps not more than \$25 more outlay, in lieu of which he saves the labor of getting timber, box, and door stuff, board of hands, &c., and gets a machine made of better material than it is convenient to get usually on plantations. The PRESS is portable, and can be taken down and removed at pleasure.

The subscriber will sell State or County rights for this PRESS, which affords a rare chance to secure a handsome business either in building or selling rights to others to build. All PRESSES supplied by the subscriber are guaranteed to perform according to the above statement, and to be made of good material, and in a workmanlike manner.

Persons wishing PRESSES at any future day will please make their orders early, so that the work may be executed in good season.

M'Comb's Non-Elastic Tie.—The use of this PRESS, and M'Comb's Non-Elastic Tie, (the wooden hoop secured by an iron link,) enables the planter to save from 75 cents to one dollar per bale, as he can put and keep his bales in shipping size. The subscriber will furnish links, with right to use, at 12½ cents per bale, (seven links to each bale,) and links and hoops ready to put on at thirty cents per bale.

In cases where it is inconvenient to make payment on the completion of a Press, an accepted draft payable out of the next Crop will be taken; consequently planters may have their work done early in the season.

AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF IRONS, RIGHTS, &c.

J. D. SPEAR & Co., Founders, Mobile, Ala.

GINDRAT & Co., Montgomery, Ala.

ZIESER & LANIER, Merchants, Vicksburg, Miss.

S. ZIMMERMAN & Co., Founders, Vicksburg, Miss.

SUETZ & HEWIT, Founders, Louisville, Ky.

GEO. W. SIZER, Agricultural Warehouse, N. Orleans, La.

S. P. BERNARD, Druggist, Providence, La.

In all cases, the receipt for the right to use is a lithographed engraving, signed by the patentee. These are furnished to all authorized to sell, and the public are hereby notified that no others claiming the right to build, or sell irons, are authorized.

MISSISSIPPI SPRINGS, May 3, 1850.

D. M'COMB, PATENTEE.

THIS is to certify that I am now using one of "M'Comb's Labor-Saving Cotton-Presses," on the third crop, and take pleasure in saying that it is truly a labor-saving machine, and surpasses any thing of the press-kind of which I have any knowledge for ease, speed, and convenience. Three bales to the hour is easy work for five hands, and LESS THAN HALF A HORSE-POWER is necessary to make a FIVE HUNDRED POUND BALE, and only ONE MINUTE USE OF THAT POWER. From my experience with my Press, I conclude that this Press will last ten times as long as any other Press in use. It is much less oppressive to hands than any Press I have seen, it being so constructed as to enable the operators to fill the box without having their heads within it. Upon the whole, I think it the most important improvement in machinery offered to the Cotton grower since the introduction of the Cotton-Gin.

JAMES M. GIBSON.

The undersigned having witnessed the operation of "M'Comb's Labor-Saving Cotton-Press," take pleasure in saying that it is admirably calculated to remove all the difficulties heretofore contended with in making cotton-bales, as it combines all the advantages of ease, speed, convenience, and probable durability, more entirely than any press we have seen. The bale is made with from six to eight revolutions, which one horse can make with ease. Its peculiar construction makes the labor to hands less oppressive than usual, and its location under the roof of the gin-house, enables the planter to have pressing done in all kinds of weather, without exposure of hands. Upon the whole, it is our opinion that it is the most important improvement in machinery offered to the cotton growers since the introduction of the cotton-gin, as it reduces the (ordinarily) severe labor of baling cotton, to a comparatively easy operation.

E. J. TULLIS, HINDS COUNTY, Miss.

J. LIPSCOMB, MADISON Co., do.

DAVID E. MARTIN, WARREN Co., do.

A. K. MONTGOMERY, HINDS Co., do.

H. N. SPENCER, FORT GIBSON, CLAIBORNE Co., Miss.

E. T. MONTGOMERY, MADISON Co., Miss.

SAMUEL M'COMB, CLAIBORNE Co., do.

WM. MONTGOMERY, HINDS Co., do.

C. W. MONTGOMERY, do. do.

May 8, 1850.